

The Historical Outlook

A JOURNAL FOR

READERS AND TEACHERS OF HISTORY AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine

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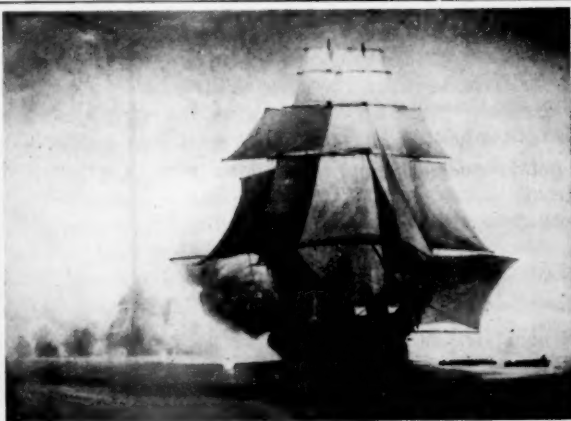
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Why Social Studies?*

BY PROFESSOR EDGAR DAWSON, HUNTER COLLEGE, NEW YORK CITY

Ten years ago, the National Education Association issued a committee report¹ on the social studies in secondary schools. The investigation which led to this report was founded on a feeling that history, as taught, failed to accomplish the purpose of real education for citizenship. Explanations of this failure were offered, such as too little time, poor textbooks, untrained teachers, etc., but explanation did not change the fact. It was felt that a service to both education and citizenship could be rendered by a systematic and constructive effort to reorganize and vitalize the teaching of those studies whose great general aim is the establishment of civic virtues and a better social conscience.

The committee considered the different elements contributed by history, civics or government, economics, and sociology, and sought to prepare a course that would include these elements in the best form possible in the limited time at the disposal of the secondary schools. They considered that the work of the secondary schools began when the pupil was about twelve years old, and continued for six years, culminating in his graduation from high school; and they believed that every pupil might properly be required to pursue these studies during each of the six years. Other subjects could wait until training for citizenship had been provided.

The report was intended to be preliminary, to provoke discussion and criticism out of which maturer judgment might grow, definite purposes might emerge, and the best methods of attaining these purposes become clear. But the war turned our minds away from educational effort for a while, and, after the war, the work of the committee was not revived, although its influence, of a more or less indefinite and imponderable sort, continues to be felt. We are still discussing the report of 1916. Recently, however, the American Historical Association has decided to undertake the gathering together of all the threads of civic training, and the weaving of them into a fabric that will be useful to teachers and school administrators.

In the problem of organizing any field of education, the most difficult and the most important element is a clear understanding of the definite, concrete purposes to be attained; but the purposes of the social studies are much more difficult to understand and to state than are those of any other field. Most people can see at once some definite, practical

object in learning sciences or mathematics or languages. "The boy is preparing to be a doctor, or an engineer, or a foreign correspondent." But in pursuing the social studies he is only preparing to be a citizen, and what does that mean? He was born a citizen, or at least his father took out papers. What more is there to it?

It used to be thought that we study history for the practical purpose of learning the leading facts in the evolution of our own country. Textbooks and teaching have been based on this idea. But even in their best presentation, the facts thus taught were more or less superficial and isolated, and the results of learning them not very encouraging. A recognition of this was one of the forces behind the work of the committee of 1916.

In the judgment of that committee, the general purpose in teaching the social studies is preparation for a finer citizenship to meet the demands of democratic conditions. Under democratic conditions, they included universal literacy, a press with a somewhat undeveloped sense of responsibility, universal suffrage, and an economic system that makes the welfare of every family depend upon the conduct of others scattered throughout the world. On all sides, leaders of educational development were thinking about these things. Sociologists, considering them, were asking about "values" in education, particularly in the field of the social studies. Dogmatic religion was following autocratic government into oblivion; men were throwing off the leading strings of tradition, superstition, and public opinion, and becoming free; but nothing was being done to insure wisdom in the use of this freedom.

Educators are still waiting for the leader who will understand and state the purposes of training for citizenship in a way that is not only acceptable to the trained psychologist and the student of ethics, but at the same time simple enough to appeal to the practical teacher and the maker of school curricula. It is hoped that the investigation now beginning may result in enlightenment. If it does no more than issue a practical analysis of definite "objectives," to use the educator's terminology, it will justify several years of effort on the part of the scholars who have committed themselves to it. Such objectives may include the following:

I. THE ACQUISITION OF INFORMATION

However fashionable it may be at present to slight the mere facts of history and social science, information is not a thing to be despised. Even though mental discipline from hard work is now in eclipse,

* Reprinted from *The Educational Review*, March, 1927, pp. 138-143, with the permission of the publishers, Doubleday, Page and Company.

most practical people would be disposed to say that members of modern society who have intelligence enough to complete a high school course ought to know something about the processes through which the race has reached its present condition. This means that the pupils ought to learn some facts and remember them at least long enough to discuss them and draw simple inferences from them.

Two well-known professors of history recently agreed that they doubted the value of history in the schools. "Pupils forget what they learn," said they, "and they may as well forget it. The facts mean nothing to them." But both of these gentlemen are skeptics, if not agnostics, in matters of social responsibility. They might, without great exaggeration, be called pessimists as to the advance of our civilization. At least one of them has held that it makes no difference what men do, because the future is determined by a chain of causation inexorably fixed by forces entirely outside the control of men. Blind necessitarianism is his philosophy, and the blind cannot well lead, whether their followers be also blind or no.

Aside from the satisfaction of natural intellectual curiosity, which is perfectly sane and an attribute of every healthy mind, the facts of history are useful as material for thinking. History does not repeat itself exactly, any more than does the life of one ordinary individual, but, in both, the situations which arise can often be understood and dealt with only by recollection and consideration of similar situations in the past. It is not given to the individual to remember the history of the race as he remembers his own life, but he can learn some of the recorded facts thereof and use them to help him in thinking and in acting, somewhat as he uses his own past experience.

II. DEVELOPMENT OF UNDERSTANDING

By so using the facts of history, the pupil sets himself on the road toward understanding. He learns to look at them, not as isolated bits of information, but as parts of a long chain of related experiences, as elements, depending upon one another, in a long, deep growth, of infinite complexity.

Professor Henry Johnson has said that history tells us whence we came, whither we are going, and what we have done on the way. Its very essence lies in the appreciation that what *is* has come about through a long process of evolution, a chain of causation the links of which were often unseen by the persons who forged them, and seen awry by those who watched and tried to use the chain. To grasp this fact is the very first step in understanding human affairs.

A social conflagration swept over Russia. To the ignorant, Lenin and Trotzky stood out either as monsters who, in some mysterious way, threw peaceful Russia into convulsions, killed the poor inoffensive Tsar, seized the property of gentle nobles, and brought starvation and ruin to the people of every class, or as new Messiahs, destined to do away with oppression and tyranny and give to every man an

equal share of wealth and happiness. As we study history, these two figures shrink gradually until they are lost in insignificance. We find that ideas of democracy had for centuries been spreading over the earth; that the forces of conservatism in Russia were unable to yield to the forces of progress; that the aristocrats were no more malicious nor selfish than most people in similar situations; that the peasants and industrial workers were left in complete ignorance and superstition; that discontent and disillusion came gradually like the gathering of nature's forces; that accidents happened, such as the Russo-Japanese War and the World War; and then someone dropped a match into the gun-powder, as was inevitable. We see with pity that the natural leaders had not been able to put their houses in order; they were not sufficiently enlightened to approach their problems and their differences as Baldwin and Thomas approached the general strike in England last May; they did not understand.

Closely related to what used to be called history are geography and psychology. We who would appreciate what man has done on his pilgrimage from savagery to his present state must borrow a little from these two fields. Without them, our appreciation is incomplete.

Much hysterical noise is made about the treatment of tropical peoples by so-called imperialists. The ignorant wax eloquent about the plight of India. Why should not its fine inhabitants be free as Americans are? For these noise-makers, human geography has no meaning; the difference in climate, the relation of a people to its environment signify nothing. They do not want facts nor reasoning, but action with closed eyes. Justice for them is wholly blind.

A certain missionary went to work among the Eskimos, to lead them to a better life. Before he knew what was happening, he found himself under serious suspicion of being a thief. He had picked up some driftwood above the line of high water, and this, among the people to whom he was ministering, was a violation of one of the most sacred rights of private property. How could he know that geographical conditions make laws and establish customs? Where there is plenty of wood, one picks up pieces along the beach, even on private estates, with impunity; but where wood is as rare as precious metals and comes only as a gift of the tide, the man who lifts it from below high water and lays it in a safe place stakes his claim to it, and no honest traveler will touch it any more than will the mountaineer of experience misuse the contents of a hut left open for his shelter in the wilderness.

While the geographer is giving us these important hints about the effects of climate and of other geographical conditions, the psychologist helps us in another way. He tells us a good deal about why people become angry, or morose, or indifferent; and to know why people feel as they feel is a long step toward understanding why they do as they do, either as individuals or in groups. He tells us also some

very practical things about intelligence that ought to affect political institutions and economic organization.

It is now pretty well known that, of all the people in the world, a large proportion are incapable of more complex thinking than would be expected from a normal child of twelve. Those who would like to *understand* a revolution or an election or a strike ought to bear this fact in mind. Those who criticize the slow progress of democracy and the sad mistakes that strew its path might turn their criticisms to better use if they took the trouble to learn what even youthful psychologists know about the reasoning power of the average person. The patient teacher and leader will be served more and more by the scientist's knowledge of what is fairly and reasonably to be expected from those for whom tasks must be set. The laws which govern expression of public opinion through the ballot will ultimately be revised on the basis of such knowledge.

III. RESPECT FOR SCIENTIFIC TRAINING AND EXPERIENCE.

The acquisition of knowledge and the development of understanding will naturally lead to respect for training and experience. The student who knows some of the facts of history and social science, and who has learned in some degree to understand them and to apply them to present problems, will begin to see that such knowledge and understanding are of value. He will begin to rate them higher than emotional appeal and opportunism, and to realize the difference between the demagogue and the trained public servant. If education for citizenship has any relation to a wiser use of the processes of selecting those who are to have authority in government, it must aim to encourage and develop such respect.

The sciences called economics and politics seem to be gradually gaining in respectability. Both of them deal principally with matters of organization, although both draw largely on whatever the psychologist has to offer; but neither will become highly useful until our citizens form a habit of looking with some respect on the scientist trained in these fields. People whose intelligence quotient is as high as 110 are likely, when they are ill, to consult a trained doctor. If they want to build a house, they ask for an architect. But when these same people propose to write a law, a charter, or a constitution, they generally ignore the existence of scientific principles in political organization.

One of these principles maintains that legislation ought to follow, rather than lead, education; that authority should understand before it commands. No well-trained student of the science of government would approve our efforts to make people good by statute alone, however desirable our aim may be, either concretely or abstractly. There is now little doubt in the minds of the thoughtful that the method by which we have attacked the alcohol evil was hastily chosen. Did this method make any use of experience or science? One of the ablest of writers on police administration is convinced that we impose on our

police forces burdens which are simply more than they can bear, and thus cause them to break down. This is due to no malicious intent, but to lack of knowledge, failure to understand, failure to use scientific advice. One of the reasons for such failure and such lack is the fact that we do not teach the social studies with the purpose of developing such respect for scientific knowledge as will lead our future citizens to follow trained leaders rather than self-appointed politicians. We lay no stress on scientific social reform as opposed to emotional social aspirations.

IV. FAITH IN THE FUTURE

Why have we not yet begun appreciably to teach the social studies in a way that will lead to knowledge, understanding, and respect for trained leadership?

One reason seems to be that we do not really take the matter seriously. We have no abiding faith either in the future of our institutions or in the efficacy of teaching the bases of sound social progress. Materialism seems to have so strong a hold on many of us that, even while we realize how brief is the duration of its satisfactions, we can see nothing beyond it. A very large proportion of our intelligentsia has precious little faith in anything that transcends the limits of machinery and other material things. We give wide publicity to such a book as *A Century of Stupendous Progress*, the purpose of which seems to be to show that we have made more progress in the last hundred years than in any preceding thousand, because we can now travel faster, broadcast further, and circulate more and larger newspapers. These things are true. But when we travel and reach a certain destination, what do we do there? What do we hear when we "get London" on the radio? What ideas do our newspapers give us?

This preoccupation with material things blinds us to the fact that the whole course of history shows great probability of a future better than the present. That the present is better than the past, nearly everyone grants; and few feel that the present leaves nothing to be desired; yet so many are prone to see no hope in what is yet to come. The president of a great university is reported to have said recently that western civilization has passed the top of its curve and is declining. There is no scientific evidence, and at present there can be none, in support of this pessimistic conclusion. It was, of course, uttered, if uttered at all, only as a sigh of discouragement. But leaders of great influence ought not to sigh in the newspapers.

Except for the prevalence of such pessimism, it would seem unnecessary to argue that there is good ground for confidence in the future of our civilization. It is impossible to prove logically that social development will follow one course rather than another, but it is not difficult to show that the probabilities are all on the hopeful side. That we need more faith in the future of our race on earth, it is hardly necessary to prove, and there seems to be no more likely way of increasing and strengthening it than effective teach-

ing of the social studies, with particular emphasis on history. No teacher should hesitate to try to train the young in such a way as to develop determination to promote progress, and no trained teacher will so hesitate for long, unless he is a pessimist without vitality—in other words, a degenerate.

Professor Edward P. Cheyney, in a recent address² to the American Historical Association, gave six simple illustrations of the working of law in history. Each of these illustrations is an argument of hope. Each shows how, since the beginning of records, there has been a gradual development of more reasonable relations between men, more respect for human life, as shown by the growth of democracy, and a higher degree of moral character. Each shows how this development is characterized by an unbroken chain of causation, as inexorable as are the processes of material phenomena. These movements have gone on through the ages, and it is reasonable to suppose that they will continue to go on, whether we want them to or not. More accurately speaking, they will go on because normal healthy people do and will continue to want them to, just as normal healthy people will continue to breathe. It is natural to hope and to work for progressive development.

A well-known biologist³ reasons similarly. He argues frankly from the fulness of his knowledge of a period which runs back far beyond the beginnings of recorded history, and he reaches the conclusion that there is the best possible ground for belief in the continued progress of our race.

Neither historian nor biologist would leave the impression that this progress moves steadily forward in the sense that there are no recessions, no depressions in the curve. Both see that particular nations may continue to break down and fail, as individuals will, because they cannot stand the burdens of prosperity that success brings. Temperance is easy enough during the training season, but when the championship is won, the team is likely to break training, and then follows disaster. It may be long before the teaching of moral control, decent living, and scientific use of experience will be highly enough developed and widespread to save particular nations.

Teachers of the social studies should adopt the attitude of these two experts and let all their teaching lead their pupils toward faith in the future. Not faith without works. For, even if the millennium is to come whether we will or no, our little efforts can, to a little extent, smooth the way and help it come a little sooner. We must work as well as believe, but our work must move with the current of progress and not against it. The rain-maker cannot produce rain out of nothing. The cloud is there. He only fires a shot, and the explosion hastens the precipitation. "Who are you?" says the cloud, "I was going to rain anyway. What did you think you were doing?" The rain-maker smiles. "I knew you wanted to rain," he answers, meekly, "I was just helping you."

SOCIAL STUDIES OR HISTORY?

Teaching of the social studies should result in four things: knowledge, understanding, respect for trained leadership and authority, and faith in the future of our race. Taking these as ultimate goals, the more immediate objectives can be located and sought without much difficulty.

In accomplishing these four aims, history draws its material from many sources. *Knowledge* must include not only the facts commonly assigned to history, but also the proposals of sound scholarship in the fields of economic and political organization. *Understanding* of social conditions and processes cannot be complete without consideration of what the geographer and the psychologist have to contribute, and some would add the sociologist and the student of ethics.

These elements have generally been handled by history teachers who are now often called teachers of social studies. It makes little difference what name is used. The important things are, first, the purposes in the mind of the teacher, and next, the amount of training the teacher has. Some specialists would reverse the order, placing the training of the teacher above his purposes or ideals; but purposes are rarer than training, rare as the latter is.

History is a good enough name; social studies is good enough; but, other things being equal, one word is always better than two. It is manifestly unnecessary to provide, in addition to history, courses in geography, psychology, economics, government, sociology, and ethics. These are names of specialization; they have been coined by people who wanted to study single aspects of society. The curriculum maker cannot find place for the researches of specialists. His task is to select out of a great mass of material a little body of facts and principles that can be used by the trained teacher in developing faith in social progress. To guard against superficial inferences, it should be added that no intelligent person thinks teaching is drilling in facts for their own sake. But discussion looking to understanding must concern itself with facts; and the curriculum maker must select certain facts and principles, and arrange them in such form that the teacher may choose from them those which he can best use. One cannot think in a vacuum.

Nearly all of the facts in this field are historical facts, facts of history. Some of them may be too nearly current to justify great emphasis on their historical character; some are the result of psychological research; and some are matters of geography, and therefore close to such physical sciences as geology and meteorology or climatology. But all of them are significant in teaching, because they relate to conduct, aspiration, character, and social progress. They throw light on human action and behavior in the past and in the present. The teacher will place most emphasis on the past, for facts of the past are more nearly fixed and accurate, and therefore a safer basis for reasoning, than those of the present which are hard to understand and may change while we are studying them.

It is simpler and more definite, therefore, to call the subject *history*, which undoubtedly it is; not failing in our respect for all other subjects which contribute to our understanding of it; and teaching it with constant reference to the four great aims suggested above.

¹ Report of the Committee on Social Studies of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education of the National Education Association; Department of the Interior Bulletin No. 28, 1916.

² "Law in History," by Edward P. Cheyney. *American Historical Review*, January, 1924.

³ Edwin G. Conklin, "Science and the Faith of the Moderns." *Scribner's Magazine*, November, 1925.

The Extension of the Franchise to Women

BY NATHAN G. GOODMAN, Ph.D.

The question of the social, economic, and political position of women has been given much space by editors during the past year. "These Modern Women" is the general subject discussed in twelve articles published by *The Nation*; the December, 1926, issue of *The Survey Graphic* is the "Woman's Place Number." Other magazines of opinion have given space to various phases of the subject, mostly economic.

In England the question has again come to the attention of the public. In June of 1926 the House of Lords rejected for the third time a bill which would enable peeresses in their own right to sit and vote in the House. On July 7th, forty women's societies took part in a large mass-meeting, which was planned to open the fight to extend the present suffrage laws to include the 5,000,000 women between the ages of 21 and 30 who are unable to vote.

In France no positive action seems to have resulted from the fact that the 1926 sessions of the Congress of the International Women's Suffrage Alliance were held in Paris. The Chamber of Deputies, on May 20, 1919, voted in favor of suffrage for women. The conservative Senate, however, has been able to block any definite action. Recently the women have decided to push their claims. A year ago it was decided again to publish *La Fronde*, which will, under the able editorship of Mme. Marguerite Durand, do much to stir up interest in the suffrage movement among the women themselves.

These recent outbursts of interests in matters relating to women have suggested an examination of the story of the extension of the franchise to women. The present survey will deal only with the political status of women in the English-speaking countries and will be more particularly concerned with the history of the subject in the United States.

THE UNITED STATES

It is an interesting and at the same time a curious fact that women were legally entitled to vote in New Jersey from 1776 to 1807. The constitution of 1776 provides that "all inhabitants of this colony, of full age, who are worth fifty pounds proclamation money, clear estate in the same, shall be entitled to vote for representatives in council and Assembly; and also for other public officers that shall be elected by the people of the county at large." That this provision

was meant to include women is confirmed by the inclusion of the expression "he or she," as applied to voters, in the revised election law of 1790. There is not, however, any record to indicate that woman actually used this apparent right to vote. The law of 1790 was repealed in 1797, when the phraseology was changed so as to confer the right of suffrage upon "all free inhabitants of this State of full age." In this very year there is evidence that women voted for members of the legislature at Elizabethtown in Essex County. The contest was a close one and the campaign was bitter. Both candidates put forth every effort to win the election. As a last resort an appeal was made to the women. "At a late hour of the day just before the close of the poll, a number of females were brought up, and under the provisions of the existing laws allowed to vote." A little later, the Act of November, 1807, confined the right of suffrage to free white male citizens and in 1844 the constitution itself was revised and provided that only "white male citizens" could vote.

SCHOOL AND LIBRARY SUFFRAGE

In 1838, Kentucky granted a limited school suffrage. Widows with children of school age could vote for trustees of the school district. There was no extension of suffrage of any type in this country between 1838 and 1861, when Kansas included in its constitution this provision: "The legislature in providing for the formation and regulation of schools, shall make no distinction between the rights of males and females." In the General Statutes of 1909 it is provided that "in any election hereafter held in any city of the first, second, and third class, for the election of city or school officers, or for the purpose of authorizing the issuance of any bonds for school purposes, the right of any citizen to vote shall not be denied or abridged on account of sex."

Again, after 1861, there was no further grant of the suffrage privilege by any state until 1875. The Civil War and the unsettled period of reconstruction, which followed the war, occupied the time of the legislators and the discussions concerning votes for women were given no attention. When the Fourteenth Amendment to the Federal Constitution was under discussion, efforts to include women in its voting provisions received no consideration.

School suffrage was granted in 1875 by Michigan

and Minnesota and a year later a similar grant was made in the State of Colorado.

Up to this time the movement was confined to the West, but in 1878 New Hampshire granted school suffrage. Oregon did likewise. Three eastern states followed the example set by their neighbor, New Hampshire: Massachusetts in 1879, New York and Vermont in 1880. In the next decade the West again took the lead. In 1883 an act of the Nebraska legislature provided that "Every person, male or female, who has resided in the district forty days and is twenty-one years old, and who owns real or personal property that was assessed in the district, or who has children of school age residing in the district, shall be entitled to vote at any district meeting or school election held in any district, village, or city." Four western states, North Dakota, South Dakota, Montana, Arizona, granted school suffrage in 1887. In the same year New Jersey passed an act providing that "every citizen of the United States of the age of twenty-one years who shall have been a resident of the State for one year and of the county in which he or she claims a vote shall have a right to vote in any school meeting in any school district of the State wherein they may reside." In *Landis vs. Hendee* (57 N. J. L. 309) it was held that women may vote at school meetings under this act for all purposes except the election of officers. The Illinois Act of 1891 was also limited by decisions. The Act in Illinois provided that women twenty-one years of age with certain residence qualifications could vote in "any election held for the purpose of choosing any officer of schools under the general or special school laws of this state." In *People vs. Welsh* (70 Ill. 641) it was held that the Act of 1891 does not authorize women to vote on propositions to establish a township high school. Other decisions held the act to be unconstitutional in so far as it attempted to allow women to vote for constitutional officers. School suffrage grants were made by the states of Connecticut in 1893 and Ohio in 1894. In 1898 Minnesota gave women the right to vote for library trustees, and in the same year Delaware gave school suffrage to tax-paying women. The right to vote at school district meetings was given to the women of Wisconsin in 1900. The Oklahoma constitution of 1907 provides that "Until otherwise provided by law, all female citizens of this State, possessing like qualifications of male electors, shall be qualified to vote at school district elections or meetings, except in elections for school bonds in cities of the first class." The Connecticut Act of 1909 gives women the right to vote "for any officer of schools and directors of public libraries, and upon any question relating to education, or to schools, or to public libraries." In 1910 provisions for school suffrage were embodied in an act of the New Mexico legislature.

TAX-PAYING SUFFRAGE

Even the opponents of equal suffrage have generally admitted that the property-holding woman should in some way be given representation in the

electorate. In the Montana constitution of 1889 provision is made for the tax-paying women: "Upon all questions submitted to the vote of the taxpayers of the State, or any political division thereof, women who are taxpayers and possessed of the qualifications for the right of suffrage required of men by the Constitution, shall equally with men have the right to vote."

In Iowa bond suffrage was granted in 1894: "The right of any citizen to vote at any city, town, or school election on the question of issuing any bonds for municipal or school purposes, and for the purposes of borrowing money, or on the question of increasing the tax levy, shall not be denied or abridged on account of sex." In *Coggeshall vs. Des Moines* it was held that women are entitled to vote on the proposition to build a city hall in cities of fifty thousand or over, based upon the fact that the issuing of bonds is an integral part of the proposition to build. Louisiana made a similar grant in 1898: "Upon all questions submitted to the taxpayers as such of any municipal or other political subdivision of this state, the qualifications of such taxpayers as voters shall be those of age and residence prescribed by this article, and women taxpayers shall have the right to vote at all such elections." In 1901 the women of New York were given the right to vote on questions of local taxation in towns and villages. This act, however, was limited by judicial decisions. Bond suffrage was granted in Kansas and in 1908 tax-paying women were granted the privilege of voting on questions of local taxation and granting of franchises.

MUNICIPAL SUFFRAGE

Kansas, in 1887, was the first state to grant to women the right to vote for municipal officers. This type of suffrage, however, did not spread. It was granted in Illinois in 1913, and in 1917 in North Dakota, Iowa, and Nebraska.

SUFFRAGE FOR PRESIDENTIAL ELECTORS

The Federal Constitution provides that "Each state shall appoint, in such Manner as the Legislature thereof may direct, a number of electors," etc. Under this authority the legislature of Illinois gave the qualified women of that state the right to vote for presidential electors. This step, which Illinois took in 1913, was followed in 1917 by Indiana, North Dakota, Ohio, Rhode Island, Michigan, and Nebraska. In 1919 a similar suffrage grant was made in the states of Maine, Vermont, Wisconsin, Iowa, Tennessee, Minnesota, and Missouri. A decision of the State Supreme Court declared the Indiana law to be unconstitutional, while in Ohio the bill was defeated at the polls.

FULL STATE SUFFRAGE

Wyoming was both the first territory and the first state to grant full state suffrage. In 1869, as a territory, it made the grant and entered the Union with equal suffrage in 1890. The Wyoming constitution provides that "The right of citizens to vote and hold office shall not be denied or abridged on account of sex." There was some talk in Congress that the

equal suffrage clause in the Wyoming constitution might have to be abandoned and the Wyoming legislature explained, "We will remain out of the Union a hundred years rather than come in without suffrage." Sixteen states, including Alaska, granted equal suffrage before the ratification of the Federal constitutional amendment in 1920. The only eastern state in this group was New York, which granted full state suffrage to women in 1917. South Dakota, Michigan, and Oklahoma followed in 1918. Then came Colorado in 1893 to be joined, three years later, by Utah and Idaho.

For fourteen years, from 1896 to 1910, no progress was made in securing grants of equal state suffrage. In 1910 Washington fell in line with its neighbors and California joined in 1911; Oregon, Arizona, and Kansas in 1912; Alaska in 1913; Nevada and Montana in 1914.

This liberal movement was confined to the West. Every state which made the grant lies beyond the Mississippi. In 1917 Arkansas granted equal suffrage at primary elections, and a year later Texas made a like grant. This was practically equivalent to complete full state suffrage, because of the preponderance of one party, the Democratic party, in these two states.

THE FEDERAL AMENDMENT

The first real attempt to obtain suffrage for women by Federal amendment was made when the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution was being discussed in 1866. It was claimed that since the amendment recognized the citizenship of both men and women, it was the intention of the framers of the amendment that all citizens should vote. In order to test this view Miss Susan B. Anthony, with several others, registered and voted at an election for United States Representatives in New York in 1872. Miss Anthony was arrested and it was charged in the United States Court that she "did knowingly, wrongfully, and unlawfully vote for a Representative in the Congress of the United States without a lawful right to vote in the said election district." In the eyes of the Court she was guilty and was fined one hundred dollars and costs. The attempt to embody a definite provision for equal suffrage in the Fourteenth Amendment and the subsequent attempt to vote under its provisions failed.

The Federal suffrage amendment was first proposed in Congress by Representative George W. Julian of Indiana in 1878, but it was so poorly supported that it was not brought to a vote. Since that time the "Susan B. Anthony" amendment had been presented again and again in Congress. In 1882 both houses of Congress provided for woman suffrage committees, but the House committee was discontinued two years later and was not re-established until 1918. In the Senate the first vote was taken on the amendment in January of 1887, but was defeated. It came up again in 1914 and suffered a similar fate. In 1915 the House bill for suffrage was brought to a vote (the first time in the history of the country) and was defeated by a vote of 174-204. Three years later,

on January 10, 1918, the House passed the amendment by exactly the necessary majority, 274-136. Unfortunately, in October of 1918, the amendment was rejected by the Senate, 31-53. The House again passed the amendment in May of 1919, 304-89, and on June 4, 1919, the Senate accepted the measure, 56-25. The amendment was then submitted to the states in this form: "The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied nor abridged by the United States or by any State on account of sex. The Congress shall have power by appropriate legislation to enforce the provision of this article."

COMMENTS ON THE AMERICAN DEVELOPMENTS

The first state to ratify the Nineteenth Amendment was Wisconsin, on June 11, 1919, and the State Department at Washington received its first notification from that state on June 13th. Illinois and Michigan ratified the amendment on June 10th, but did not give official notification to the Washington authorities until June 14th and 16th. On August 24, 1920, after a stormy session in its legislature, Tennessee ratified and the State Department received its thirty-sixth notice of ratification two days later and the amendment was declared ratified.

Before the final adoption of the Nineteenth Amendment only eight states remained which gave no grant of suffrage, limited or full state. With the exception of Pennsylvania, these states were in the South: Alabama, Florida, Georgia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Virginia, and West Virginia. Of these, Alabama, Virginia, and Maryland rejected the Federal suffrage amendment, but it was ratified by Pennsylvania and West Virginia.

The suffrage movement may be said to have been a movement of the West, with the East following slowly and the South not participating. Before the turn of the century twenty-one states had made school suffrage grants, and of these only six were eastern states. With the exception of New York, tax-paying suffrage was confined to the West. This was also true of municipal suffrage. Between 1913 and 1919 fourteen states gave women the privilege to vote for presidential electors; three of these were eastern states. Suffrage extension was, therefore, a western movement which the East did not hurry to join.

ENGLAND

Although women householders had for some time voted in the vestries, which administered the civil affairs of the English parishes, the first actual grant of suffrage to women was made in 1847-48, in connection with the local boards of health which were then established. In 1869 municipal suffrage was granted to single women and widows. The important Education Act of 1870 gave women the right to vote for members of the school boards established by that bill. In Scotland, in 1881, municipal suffrage was conceded to single women and widows, and eight years later county suffrage was granted. In 1888 county suffrage was granted in England, and in 1894 the franchise was extended to women in the elections of Parish and District Councils.

When the Reform Bill of 1867 was being discussed in Parliament, an amendment to enfranchise women was proposed by J. Stuart Mill. It was received with hilarity and rejected by a vote of 196 to 73. Thirteen successive bills were introduced and the subject was a matter of serious debate on more than a score of occasions during the next half century. In 1868, "constitutional lawyers like Mr. Chisholm Anstey decided that women might be legally entitled to vote, and some 5,000 of them applied to be registered. In a test case brought before the court of common pleas, the verdict was adverse on the ground that it was contrary to usage for women to vote." A second reading of a woman's suffrage bill was secured for the first time in the House of Commons in 1886. Eleven years later a suffrage bill was again passed in second reading in the House. But no further progress was made.

The organization of strong suffrage societies, particularly after 1903, kept the movement to the fore. Neither Liberals nor Conservatives, however, were moved by the militant tactics adopted by the Women's Social and Political Union in 1905. By 1914 it seemed probable that a definite grant would be conceded by both parties, but the events of the European War blocked the hopes of the women. In October of 1916 a conference committee of Lords and Commons was appointed to draw up plans for electoral reforms, and in its report of January 27, 1917, it recommended woman's suffrage in this form: "Any woman in the Local Government Register who has attained a specified age, and the wife of any man who is on that register, if she has attained that age, shall be entitled to be registered and to vote as a parliamentary elector." Various ages were discussed, of which 30 and 35 received most favor. A bill was introduced, adopting the suggestions of this report, and it was passed in the House on December 7, 1917. The Lords took up the bill on December 11th and voted on it favorably on February 6, 1918. The Representation of the People Act fixed the voting age of women at 30 years, subject to the male residence qualifications (six months in a parliamentary division). The present movement seeks to substitute 21 years for 30 years.

CANADA

In Canada the first suffrage grant to women was made by Ontario in 1850, when the women of that province were given the right to vote at school elections. This province went a step further in 1884, when it permitted widows and unmarried women to vote at municipal elections. New Brunswick granted municipal suffrage in 1886, and Nova Scotia and Manitoba followed a year later, and in 1889 Quebec made a similar grant. In the Dominion Electoral Franchise Act of 1885 "Person" was defined to mean a male person in the provisions of the Act and therefore women could not vote under its terms. The provincial franchise laws, however, apply to voters in elections for members to the House of Commons. These provinces granted full suffrage: Alberta, British Columbia, Manitoba, Nova Scotia, Ontario, and Saskatchewan.

AUSTRALIA

Full national suffrage was granted to all women in Federated Australia in 1902. Previous to this enactment extensive liberal franchise grants had been made in the states. As early as 1867 New South Wales gave women municipal franchise rights, and Victoria followed in 1869; West Australia in 1871, and South Australia in 1880. South Australia, in 1895, granted full state suffrage to women. West Australia made a similar grant in 1900, New South Wales in 1902, Tasmania in 1903, Queensland in 1905, and Victoria in 1908.

NEW ZEALAND

School suffrage was granted to the women of New Zealand in 1878 and municipal suffrage in 1884. Full national suffrage was conceded in 1893 and the franchise now extends to every male and female upwards of twenty-one years. In South Australia, it was provided, together with the grant of equal state suffrage in 1894, that women be permitted to sit in parliament. In New Zealand, on the other hand, the enfranchising Act of 1893 expressly denied to women the right of election to the House of Representatives or nomination to the Council.

The struggle of the Liberals in the English-speaking countries for equal suffrage can be assigned largely to the last fifty years. Slowly, and at times very slowly, progress was made. There was the school franchise, the library franchise, and the vote for tax-paying women. The goal of the pioneers of the woman's movement, national suffrage, was not won, however, until the women themselves made insistent demands year in and year out over a long period. The increase in the number of educated women in the last thirty years was no small factor in bringing about the necessary legislation in both England and in the United States.

"If Europe is driven out of China, the Chinese millions will be exploited either by a handful of their own leaders or by Russian agents," says Frank H. Simonds in the *March Review of Reviews*, and he adds that "if the expulsion of Europe from China might well prove pleasant for the Japanese, the arrival of the Russians can hardly be as attractive....And nothing is more challenging than the study of the extent to which the realization of the breakdown of European strength has been growing, both in Asia and in Africa, and the degree to which this realization has stimulated....the Asiatic revolt."

"British statesmen are tired of the problem of Egypt.... We thought it was a good advertisement once; but after all, it has not been one of our successes....It is clear that the 'big brother stunt' has failed. Egypt does not want to come into the British Empire, and, to be quite frank.... we do not want her in....But if we are going to continue to protect Egypt from somebody else, if we are to guarantee the territorial integrity of Egypt and risk wars for the sake of Egyptians, it would seem to be now only fair to begin to demand payment, some sort of assistance....We can ensure them external peace; we can clear out from Cairo; but the insurance is worth paying for," says the Rt. Hon. Josiah C. Wedgwood, D.S.O., U.P., in the February *Contemporary Review*.

The History Club: A Symposium on American History

BY JACOB HENRY LANDMAN, NEW YORK CITY

In the periodical literature of the newer pedagogy, the rôle of clubdom in secondary school life is relegated to subordinate consideration. Undoubtedly, this disregard is defensible when one compares the instructive values of the classroom to that of the club. This defense, however, does not excuse the almost complete absence of reflection on the pedagogic merits of the club. If the club has little importance in the teaching of any other secondary school subject, it has manifold possibilities for the better teaching of high school history. The History Club is worthy of the whole-hearted support of the history teaching staff for, when properly sponsored, it will prove to have in store great pedagogic values.

In most high schools the History Club, and, for that matter, all clubs, receive little concern from both the student and teacher. This lethargic career of the History Club in the school curriculum is explicable, because the teacher sponsor regards his supervision as an onerous, extra-curricular activity. If the History Club has a *raison d'être* as an institution, its supervisor ought to be encouraged sufficiently by being granted an equivalent, compensatory time allowance at least, in his teaching schedule.

The insignificant position of the History Club can, furthermore, be accounted for, because of the uninteresting, haphazard programs arranged for the club sessions. Obviously, if the teacher supervisor is heartened, this deficiency can be easily remedied.

The predominant rôle of school athletics in the extra-curricular activity of the high school life, because of the great interest and excitement that it affords, almost predicates an ill fate for any school club. With an interesting, prearranged, educative program and a stimulated supervisor, the History Club promises to excel in popularity any non-athletic institution in the school and will keenly rival the athletic teams therein.

The history teacher frequently seeks an experimental station where he might employ with impunity some of his ideas in history teaching before he would practice them in the classroom. I know of no better educational laboratory at the disposal of the history teacher where he can experiment and apply the newer methodology of history teaching such as "the project method," "the socialized recitation," "the laboratory method," and others. One would be surprised to realize how such a varied and novel program of experiments will attract students to the club.

The success of the History Club as an institution depends largely upon the student support that it enlists. Since attendance at the club sessions is voluntary and after school hours, the problem that confronts the supervisor of the club is to provide a program that will be instructive and interesting.

As a prerequisite, it is essential that the History Club be organized as a miniature political state where the students govern or are governed by their own constituted democracy. This organization, and its attendant parliamentary procedure, fascinate and attract students. To be sure, if the study of history and civics is to be of any practical value in later life for the student, it should instruct the student in such democratic institutions. How better can one learn the merits of democracy than by actually participating in it?

The most commendable suggestion for the History Club program is to conduct a clearing house of current events. This program is employed extensively and History Club supervisors have by trial and error learned its method of presentation, and its merits and demerits.

There are innumerable others, but it is not my purpose to treat the varieties of History Club programs, but to introduce a novel one that I have employed and found successful which the club called "A Symposium on American History."

In brief, the general scheme is to enlist the services of every club in the school and to request it to arrange a talk on the contributions of its special subject to American civilization before a joint meeting of the guest club and the History Club.

At the initial meeting of the semester, the History Club was duly organized. Immediately thereafter, the president of the History Club formally invited each of the clubs of the school to a future joint meeting of the respective club and the History Club, at which time the visiting club was to be prepared to address the combined audience on "French Contributions to American Civilization," if it were the French Club, or "Chemical Contributions to American Civilization," if it were the Chemistry Club. Naturally, the subject of the talk depended upon the nature of the club.

Every club in the school, the various foreign language clubs, the English Club, the Chemistry Club, the Hatikwah, the Newman Club, the Negro Club, and others accepted the invitations and immediately made arrangements for a mutually agreeable date.

The clamor for an early date grew so great, that the History Club had to arbitrarily decide that, since it had only one session per week, it would grant the dates to the clubs in chronological order of the arrival of the acceptances of the several clubs.

The clubs heartily welcomed the plan. They, more than the History Club, realized the need of a new, better, or more purposeful program for their activity. Clubdom was given a new and inspired lease of life. Each club immediately planned its theme for the talk and appointed or elected four or

five students to study different angles of the subject. These students, after consulting the librarian, the members of the teaching staff and their club advisor, studied and wrote a seven to ten-minute speech on his particular topic. These speeches were delivered before their own club at which time the ideas were discussed and criticized by their fellow club members.

By special arrangement with the English Department, these written speeches were accepted as themes and were corrected and graded as English compositions. This provision assured written speeches of good rhetoric, grammar, and diction, even if the ideas therein were still disputable.

For example, the French Club selected three members, each of whom treated, respectively, "Frenchmen in American Political Life," "Frenchmen in American Military and Naval History," and "French Civilization in American Culture." The English Club sent three spokesmen who dealt, respectively, with "England's Contributions to American Civilization in Language and Literature," "The English in American History," and "The English in American Commerce and Trade."

The choice of these sub-topics is open to criticism. This can be remedied by increasing the number of sub-topics or by altering the content of each sub-topic.

On their respective designated dates and places, these joint meetings were held. The visiting club was formally received and, with little ado, the guest speakers were introduced, and they addressed the combined membership of the visiting club, the History Club, and many unaffiliated students. The delivery of these talks occupied more than one-half an hour. Then, an open forum was conducted by the president of the History Club, in which all those who wished discussed the presented themes pro and con.

These forums have proved to be most enlightening and fascinating. Students come armed with their childhood prejudices that they have acquired in their homes and are so determined to impose upon their fellow-students. One is quite astounded at the colossal failure of our present educational system in the teaching of toleration of our fellow-man's ideas, whether they be political, social, or religious. One

is also amazed at the failure of our present educational system to teach the student to dispel these prejudices in the face of overwhelming sound reason and fact.

The mere mention of a few of the controversies that arose will readily convey to the mind the nature of what transpired, and the intolerance and prejudices that were manifested. On one occasion, a heated controversy arose as to whether Columbus was a Spaniard, Italian, or Jew. On another occasion, the supporters of the French and those of the Germans were at loggerheads as to which of the two nations contributed more to American civilization.

I have been told that many of these controversies were relayed to the teachers, who participated most zealously in the controversies. Perhaps they also profited by their discussion, and reached a realization of the need of greater American toleration toward the diverse national civilizations in our midst and the greater need of instilling reason as against prejudice in students.

The duty of the club supervisor throughout these sessions is an exacting one, but one that is very delightful. Although he is a mere guest, he may participate in the discussion on a par with the students. His task will be to correct opinions, suggest new ideas, make comparisons and the like, but will rarely be of a disciplinary nature.

To conclude the program for the semester, it was necessary to invite all the clubs to a union meeting under the auspices of the History Club. This meeting was devoted to a summary address by the teacher supervisor himself, in which he extolled the great American ideals of the freedom of speech, press, and congregation; religious, political, social, and economic toleration; and concluded with an encomium to reason and a denunciation of prejudice.

The "Symposium on American Civilization" was found to be instructive in that the students learned the contributions of the various nations to American civilization. Furthermore, it developed a mental attitude of toleration, liberty and reason. It also trained the student in parliamentary procedure and in oral and written English.

The History Club in the High School

BY R. C. HURD, WAUKEGAN, ILLINOIS, TOWNSHIP SECONDARY SCHOOL

What is the place of the History Club in the high school? Who should be eligible to membership in it? How large should it be? Should it be limited in its activities to the members of the organization, or should it extend its influence to the whole student body, and possibly to the community? What are some desirable activities which it can carry on? What kinds of programs can it best carry on at its meetings? These questions and others we have been trying to answer in the Waukegan Township Secondary

Schools the past two years and we believe we have found a solution to most of them.

The club was organized rather late in November, 1925, and, although the sponsors made every effort to keep down the number and to restrict the membership to only those who were deeply interested in belonging to something more than a mere social club, seventy-five students signified their intention of joining. Most of the members were Seniors from the American History classes, but there were some

Juniors from the Political Economy groups, and a sprinkling of Tenth-graders taking Modern History. It was thought best to exclude the Freshmen taking Ancient History, because of the difference in ages and their being in a separate building. The number joining was much in excess of the expectations of the sponsors, and, after the routine of selecting officers was finished, the question arose of finding something for all of them to do to hold their interest. The superintendent of our schools, Mr. John W. Thalman, had made it very plain, in announcements to the student body, that there had been too many social clubs the previous year and that any student organization formed must justify its existence by worth-while activities, one of which should be an assembly program during the year.

In casting about for a suitable project to start off the year, a movie was suggested, and, after some deliberation, it was decided to secure "The Gateway to the West," one of the Chronicles of America photo-plays, and a two-reel comedy. Committees were appointed to make arrangements for the production; namely, property, publicity, tickets, and entertainment. The school had a moving-picture machine, but it had not been used for some time, the screen had to be made ready, and the shades around the large assembly had to be adjusted (as an afternoon showing was deemed best), so the property men had plenty to do. The usual publicity stunts were carried out, space in the school paper, posters by club members for the bulletin boards, and talks by members in the home rooms. A ticket-selling contest created much interest, one member accounting for more than seventy of the five hundred and fifty attending the show. Several musical numbers were given by students between the reels and these added much to the enjoyment of the occasion. More than sixty members had some active part in this, the initial effort of the club.

Our next endeavor was in co-operation with the local chapter of the Daughters of the American Revolution, which was fostering an essay contest (a part of a national contest), to uncover and record new data in local history. In addition to the medals offered in the state and county contests, the local chapter put up some cash prizes. Accordingly, we invited an old settler beyond fourscore to talk to our club on the "Underground Railroad" in our county. He gave us a very interesting message, and, as a result, several members wrote very interesting stories from research work in and around Waukegan.

A patriotic program, to commemorate both Washington's and Lincoln's birthdays, was the climax to our first year's work. Two original and worth-while parts were worked out and presented before the thirteen hundred members of our student body on February 22d. The first number was a talk on the circumstances of Lincoln's Gettysburg Address, finishing with the rendition of the address itself. A Senior boy was given this assignment and, with the aid of "The Perfect Tribute," and other material, he worked out a masterful speech. He was not a boy who had been trained for public speaking, but he held the at-

tention of the students during the ten minutes he spoke, as well as a polished orator. The other part of the program was a two-scene dramatization of the making of the "Betsy Ross" flag, preceded by a review of the flags used in the Revolutionary war prior to this one, and followed by the story of the flag, with the subsequent changes made in it up to the present day.

The club gave this program not only before the school, but also before one of the civic clubs, which was entertained in the school cafeteria the same week. A few days later the cast was invited to the annual Washington's Birthday dinner of the Daughters of the American Revolution, where they repeated the performance. Thus the club was able to extend its influence far beyond the confines of its own number, not only to the entire student body, but to representative groups in the city.

This year the History Club has already made an auspicious beginning. We first put on a mock election for the entire student body at the time of the general election, in preparation for which more than seventy-five of the ninety members took part (for the organization has grown larger this year). Voting was optional and it was necessary for them to register, but, in spite of this, about half the pupils cast a ballot in the first election of its kind ever staged in our school, and learned some of the duties of the present-day citizen. We have also had one historical movie, "Daniel Boone," and are planning to give one at least once a month. In addition to these activities, we are planning a little play of two scenes for the coming February, in which we expect to present Abraham Lincoln as a young man, and as our War President. We never lack for programs for our meetings, for we always have plans to discuss for the events ahead of us, and interest is kept at fever heat at each session. The secret of our success up to the present time is, I believe, in providing work for all who want it at something which they like to do.

Professor Jerome Davis, of Yale, is the translator of "Constitution of the Russian Communist Party," published in the February *Current History*. In his introduction to the document he says: "Whether the Bolsheviks are 'dangerous enemies of society,' or regarded as the 'saviours of humanity,' the facts should be known before judgment is pronounced. A smaller group of impartial thinkers consider that the Bolsheviks are just human beings, but with a different background. In that case they need a fair chance to work out their experiment unhampered by outside interference. The Bolsheviks are hammering out something new in the history of political control. Their experiment deserves study, not hostile armies; intelligent criticism, not damning epithets."

Letters from Napoleon to Queen Hortense, edited by Jean Hanstean, appear in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for February 15th. They cover a period from June 10, 1796, to June 10, 1815, and while they reveal nothing new, they are of interest to students of the Napoleonic era. The same issue contains M. Dieudonne's article on medieval money.

The Yale Chronicles' Photoplays in College Classes

BY SUSAN REED STIFLER, MOUNT HOLYOKE COLLEGE

To what use the *Yale Chronicles'* Photoplays may be put in a course in American history of college grade is a problem for the solution of which an experiment has been tried at Mount Holyoke College during the past semester. The college possesses a complete set of the fifteen plays which are at present available. These have been at the disposal of a three-hour course of intermediate grade, described as a "rapid survey" of American history, and covering the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries in the first semester, the period in which fourteen of the fifteen plays fall. Fifteen students, representing all four classes, were registered in the course.

Of the fourteen plays, eight were selected for use in the classroom, and these were assigned, early in the year, one play to a single student, or to two working together. Each student was instructed to prepare a lecture as an introduction to her play and to make what investigations were necessary for discussing critically the interpretation which the film presented, as well as to prepare a bibliography on her subject. Lecture or lecture outline and bibliography were to be submitted to the instructor as a semester paper. Each student was given a special showing of her film previous to the time of the class presentation.

The work was of a distinctly experimental nature and was not altogether satisfactory to the instructor. At the close of the semester, therefore, the following questions were asked of the students. The answers were of sufficient interest to make it seem desirable to pass on these results for the possible use of other classes facing the same problem.

1. Do you think that the *Yale Chronicles'* Photoplays can be used to advantage in connection with courses in American History of college grade?
2. If not, explain why you feel so.
3. If you feel that they are valuable for such use, state what you consider their chief contribution.
 - (a) Training for secondary school teaching?
 - (b) Prompting critical research in interpretation?
 - (c) Adding color and interest, merely?
 - (d) Something further? If so, explain.
4. Of the pictures you have seen, which do you consider most valuable in college grade work? Why? What ones are least valuable? Why? (If you have answered "No" to question 1, this may be omitted.)
5. Of the class presentations in History 14, which one was the best? Why? Which was the least valuable? Why?
6. Criticize frankly the use we have made of the photoplays. (The following questions may be suggestive to you.)
 - (a) Have we used too many of the plays?
 - (b) Have we spent too much time in class hours on them? i. e., would you have preferred to see them outside of class hours?
 - (c) Was the accompanying student presentation successful, in general, or would it have been better to have the play shown with no introductory remarks?

(d) In this case, should the play be shown before or after the classroom work and reading on the subject?

(e) Have you, yourself, any constructive idea for the use of the films other than the plan we have followed during this semester? If so, outline it.

Question 1. Of the fifteen students, fourteen responded enthusiastically in favor of the use of the plays even in college grade work. The fifteenth admitted their value, but suggested that "they are not as good for college work as if they had been made with college students in mind."

Question 3. All of the fifteen found the pictures of value in adding color and interest, but only three stopped at this point. Two were chiefly interested in the future possibility of using the films in secondary school teaching and thought that this preliminary study of them in college was of most value for that; four (probably not planning to teach) emphasized the prompting to critical investigation of sources for the sake of discussing the film director's interpretation; five saw value under all three headings. The one remaining student (who was majoring in economics) found special value in the depiction of social and economic conditions of the American people in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, a matter which cannot receive its proper attention in a "rapid survey" course.

Question 4. The eight plays which were shown in class were Peter Stuyvesant, Gateway to the West, Wolfe and Montcalm, Eve of the Revolution, Declaration of Independence, Vincennes, Yorktown, and Alexander Hamilton. The others were shown outside of class hours, with no accompanying discussion, and attendance was optional. In passing judgment on the value of the different plays in college grade work, the students voted almost unanimously for the Declaration of Independence, while Peter Stuyvesant was given second place and Alexander Hamilton third. Negative opinions were for the most part offered in general terms. "Those pictures which pertain to the military struggles of our country are less valuable for the college student." "The military campaigns and pursuits seem unnecessary, at least in the study of history in college. Our main purpose is to study the causes and results of the actual fighting, even of decisive battles." "The least valuable pictures were those which contained a good deal of fighting. They were often either ridiculous or boring and in no way prompted desire for research." Such comments appeared in the majority of the papers and accounted for the disparagement of such films as Gateway to the West, Wolfe and Montcalm, and Yorktown, though the last was mentioned as interesting because of its emphasis on the importance of the French alliance. It must be remembered that as the plays which

were not used for class studies were given out of class hours, not all of the fifteen were seen by the entire class. This would account for the fact that The Puritans was completely ignored, a play which would appeal much more to an older student than to a child.

Questions 5 and 6. In criticizing the method which the class had been following the students were sharply divided. Nine of the fifteen felt that the general plan followed, possibly with modifications, was a good one. The other six were convinced that the films should be shown outside of class hours, with no critical comments. Four of these suggested that attendance should be required in lieu of an hour's reading; the other two preferred that attendance should be made entirely optional. Of these six, it is significant that three were the three students who stated that they saw no value in the films except in adding color and interest to the course. Of the nine who believed that the films should form an integral part of the class work, four only were willing to accept the arrangement which had been followed; namely, the utilization of a regular class hour for the student lecture and the accompanying photoplay. The other five, while voting for the student presentation, felt that it should not be done in a class hour. "I do not think that a picture is worth an hour of class time," writes one. "Would it be possible to make American History a sort of laboratory course, with the pictures and lectures as laboratory work and with less outside reading?" The same idea is amplified by another. "Arrange that the History class should meet for two periods together, five or six times during the semester....Assign class reading, and plan class work on the period of history represented by the movie, which should be finished before its presentation. Plan that the usual periodic class discussion and quizzes on the reading should take place during the first of these two periods. Then, the one or two students who have specialized in the period should briefly present points not covered in the previous class work and pertinent to the study of the movie. During the presentation of the movie they should make the usual comments and suggest a bibliography. Finally, under their leadership, the class should continue the discussion of the period, criticize presentation of material, ask questions, and speak of points that the movie had made significant to them. In this way the full value of the photoplays would be gained." Such a plan would call for at least one and one-half hours, and, if not specially scheduled, would necessitate evening work. It is, however, by no means an impossible plan.

Critical comments on the success or failure of particular student lectures were in agreement in regard to certain features:

1. The student presentation should take the form of a lecture or talk based on notes, not a written essay.
2. It must not attempt to cover too much material, but must concentrate on important points, chosen as the most salient features of the play.

3. It must be of a critical character, aimed to arouse questions regarding the interpretation chosen by the directors of the play, and leading the class into source material on the subject.

Failure to observe these rules, the students felt, had resulted in the production of some utterly uninteresting papers, of no value except to the writers. That this should be a reason for abandoning the student-lecture plan was combated most vigorously by one, who wrote, "Because the student reporting on the film has not in general been able to give the class much is no reason for dropping the plan; quite the contrary....There are many seniors in that class who are planning to teach next year without further preparation!....The worse we do with oral reports, the more reason for not giving them up!"

Of the eight student lectures which the class heard, one was thoroughly satisfactory and two of the others distinctly above mediocre. Of these three plays, two were the Declaration of Independence and Peter Stuyvesant, the very ones which were given first and second place in the vote on Question 4. It could hardly be mere coincidence in both cases. The conclusion then is that the successful student lecture added much to the value of the photoplay for the class as a whole.

To sum up, the whole class favored use of the films, the majority recommending that six or eight of the plays should be an integral part of the work. Among these students, however, the general opinion was that the film studies should occur in time taken from class preparation, rather than from class hours. A two-hour period, possibly in the evening, would give ample time for the elements in the study for which the majority voted—student lecture, showing of the film, an ensuing class discussion. To make this of most value, the showing of the film should follow classroom work and supplementary reading on the subject.

Although the preliminary showings of the films were planned primarily for the students an interesting by-product soon developed. When it became known that these exhibitions were open to the public school children of the village, as well as to the college community, the youngsters became regular attendants. Their appreciation appeared in the genuine enthusiasm which was frequently displayed. In this way the college was able to be of direct assistance to the schools of the town.

Miss Marion I. Newbegin's *The Mediterranean Lands* is "an introductory study in human and historical geography." It is an interesting and illuminating analysis of the relations between history and geography in a region of central importance in the story of world development. Part I, about one-third of the book, is devoted to the geography of Mediterranean lands; the remainder of the volume to "The Historical Sequence"—the ancient Near East, the Greeks, the Romans, Medieval trading centers, and the coming of the Turks. In spite of some weaknesses on the strictly historical side, the book is a useful and suggestive account of geographical influences and of historical geography (Alfred A. Knopf, New York, 1924. 222 pp. \$2.75).

Standardized Tests in Community and Economic Civics

BY HERBERT J. STACK, SUPERVISOR OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS, JOHNSTOWN, PA.

How shall we measure the relative achievement of our pupils in Community and Economic Civics? One of the last subjects of the secondary school curriculum to receive the attention of our testing people is Civics. While we find many good tests in American History, the Sciences, Mathematics, and other subjects, very few attempts have been made to standardize tests in Civics. After all, testing citizenship training subjects is one of our most difficult problems. It is relatively easy to survey content and subject-matter, determine frequencies and organize testing material to cover American History, Biology, Physics, and other subjects that have existed for some time in our secondary school curriculum, but it is quite a different task to organize a test to cover our main objectives in Civics or Problems of Democracy.

A brief review of various courses of study in Social Science, of studies by Bobbitt and Charters in Curriculum Construction, the reports of the Third and Fourth Yearbooks of the Department of Superintendence and other studies that have been made will reveal that in Civics, particularly, we are dealing with something besides subject-matter. The Pennsylvania State Course of Study emphasizes creating right civic habits, ideals, and attitudes; Briggs, in his "Curriculum Problems," lays emphasis on emotionalized attitudes and mores; the studies of Rugg and Cocking in the Third Yearbook indicate that the test of achievement in citizenship courses should not be the information gained alone, but rather the atti-

tudes, habits, and good citizenship that the individual may show.

The following tests have therefore been built up to measure, insofar as possible, the reactions of our pupils to as many of these objectives as is possible.

In Section A we have tried to determine the pupils' judgment and information about the problems of citizenship. In Section B we have attempted to survey objectively some of the materials of the course, and in Section C we attempt to visualize the social attitude of the pupil in life situations.

A friendly critic has suggested that even a correct answer of these good judgment questions would not necessarily mean that the pupil would actually make the right social response when confronted with the life situation. Quite true. On the other hand, as we teach, so we test. If we do not isolate some of these good citizenship attitudes, emphasize them, and test them, we cannot by any means assume that by virtue of passing through routine of subject-matter there is a transfer into desirable citizenship attitudes.

As a result of three years' experience, the following tests—Alpha covering the first half of the year and Beta covering the second half of the year—have been built up and tentative standards established as follows:

Grade 9	Test Alpha	Test Beta
Medians	51.5	55.8
Sum of Median scores, 107.3.		

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Johnstown, Pa.

	Possible Scores	Actual Scores
Section A	14
Section B	32
Section C	20
Total	66
Median Score

COMMUNITY CIVICS

Grade 9

Name Age Years Months
Grade Date School
Room Teacher

This test has been arranged from questions selected from the best examinations available and following the use of objective type examinations for several years.

This Community Civics has been preceded by Vocational Guidance in the seventh year and Vocational Civics in the eighth year.

DIRECTIONS

The following are a series of statements to be completed. You may complete these statements by underlining the part which makes the statement most true, for example: "The most important duty of the municipal health department is to *examine all the school children, conduct examinations for doctors, enforce quarantine laws, educate the public in regard to preventable disease and enforce health laws.*"

Which one of these parts makes the first statement most true? Underline it.

"The school in our city that is nearest the needs of adult citizens is the *High School, the Senior High School, the Evening Schools, the Parochial Schools.*

Here you must exercise care and think the questions over carefully. Underline the part which you feel makes the statement most true.

On the following pages you will find similar statements to complete. Work carefully and rapidly.

SECTION A

1. Our community disposes of its sewage at present by *treating it with chemicals, spreading it on the land, dumping into water, sewerage disposal plant.*
2. Most communities grow rapidly when *located around some industries, located on the water, there is good climate, close to a market.*
3. The first duty of a good adult citizen is to *mind his own business, be active in civic affairs, vote and pay his taxes, see that his section of the city gets improvements, send his children to school.*
4. The most sanitary way to dispose of sewage in our community is by *treating it with chemicals, dumping it into water, spreading it on the land, sewage disposal plant.*
5. Most diseases spread *because there are insufficient laws in regard to health, because people do not exercise, because doctors are not sufficiently active, because people are careless and indifferent of their health, because we do not obey the laws.*
6. Our system of taking care of garbage is the *contract, license, municipal.*
7. The best thing for a citizen to do who knows another citizen who is disobeying Board of Health laws is *to keep quiet about it, to write to the newspapers about it, to tell the neighbors about the case, to notify the Health Department.*
8. The most important educative agency for adults in our community is *the libraries, the schools, the newspapers, the clubs and fraternal organizations.*
9. Most people get their opinions about problems of political nature from *reasoning the problems themselves, reading the opinions expressed in newspapers, getting first-hand information from someone who knows.*
10. The most important duty we owe to the flag is *to know how to give the oath of allegiance, to know the history of the flag, to know how the flag is hung, to be good citizens and flag builders ourselves.*
11. The most important reason for compulsory school attendance laws is *all children should go to high school, to keep children from becoming unskilled laborers, so that all children may have school advantages, to keep young people off the streets.*
12. The most important duty of a club or organization is *to have a good constitution, to have debates and talks, to have a good time, to do something good for its membership or the community.*
13. The best cure for crime in any community is *more laws and longer sentences, hard labor in the jails, trial by jury, better educational activities, having manual training in the jails.*
14. The best thing to do with blind children is *to send them away to schools, to put them into institutions, to teach them useful occupations in our own schools, help their families through charity.*

SECTION B—Limited Response

In the following statements certain words or parts are missing. Will you please fill in the right part?

1. Good health depends upon the community; it must aim by co-operation to have pure (1) (2) and (3) for all of its people.
2. The best place for feeble-minded children is (4)
3. The organization in our city responsible for the building of schools, securing teachers and equipping schools is the (5)
4. We have many other education agencies outside our schools, for example (6) (7) and (8)
5. An adult who has been forced to leave school early should take advantage of the opportunities afforded in the (9)
6. The organization which is largely responsible for recreation in our city in the summer is the (10)
7. A citizen alone can do but very little to improve the planning of his city, but citizens banded together can well stand behind the work of the (11)
8. In order to provide for our pupils to learn about taking care of their homes we have established (12) subjects in our schools.
9. Four of the best parks in our community are (13) (14) (15) and (16)
10. Two of the water supply sources furnishing water to our community are (17) (18)
11. The best way to have good officials in charge of our government is to (19)
12. An organization to which many of us belong that does work to help the poor and needy in foreign countries and in our country is the (20)
13. The three most common causes of crime in our community are (21) (22) (23)
14. We believe that the four best ways to reduce crime in any community are (24) (25) (26) (27)
15. The following are examples of welfare organizations that do a great deal in our community in
 - a. Helping the poor (28)
 - b. Promoting physical well-being (29)
 - c. Taking care of orphans (30)
 - d. Promoting religious interests. (31)
 - e. Caring for the sick (32)

SECTION C—Good Judgment

More important than your knowledge about civics will be your social citizenship attitude in certain life situations. In other words what you would do. Will you fill in a statement of what you would do in the following situations?

1. If a new family should locate next door to you in the house which had been vacant?
2. What would be your attitude toward a visiting athletic team and another school competing on your athletic field?
3. If you saw someone injuring school property?
4. If you heard someone telling untrue stories about a friend of yours?

5. If someone asked you whether or not the Boy Scouts organization was worth while?
6. If someone tells you that churches are not good because they know some hypocrites that attend church?
7. If a lady with a small child and packages enters the street car on which you have a seat?
8. If a foreigner asks you how to become citizen?
9. If you suddenly notice a neighbor's house on fire?
10. If someone urges you to break a law because it is not convenient to obey it?

	Possible Scores	Actual Scores
Section A	24
Section B	20
Section C	32
Total	76
Median Score

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TEST BETA 1—COMMUNITY CIVICS

1. Our government in the United States is based upon the rule by *Congress, the President, the minority of the people, the Supreme Court, majority rule.*
2. Our government powers are based upon *the Articles of Confederacy, Congress, the Supreme Court, the Constitution, State laws.*
3. A constitutional amendment must be ratified by *every state in the Union, by three-fourths the states, by Congress alone, by a popular majority vote, by the Supreme Court.*
4. The Cabinet of the United States is formed *by the party bosses, by Congress, by the President, by popular election.*
5. An American who has had most to do with the formation of the League of Nations is *Theodore Roosevelt, President Harding, John Pershing, Woodrow Wilson, Calvin Coolidge.*
6. The president of the United States *has very little power, is not as powerful as the King of England, is one of the most powerful leaders in the world, is only a figure head.*
7. The session of Congress which closes March 4 is known as the *Long Session, Short Session, Special Session.*
8. The Commander-in-Chief of the Army of the United States is *General Pershing, the President, the Vice-President, the Secretary of War.*
9. The treaty making body of the United States is *The President's Cabinet, the Supreme Court, the Senate, the House of Representatives.*
10. The organization which may bring impeachment charges against a Federal officer is the *Senate, House of Representatives, Supreme Court, President's Cabinet.*
11. The best reason for joining a political party is because *your father is a member of the party, because it is the party in power, because it*

- stands by the best principles, because one of your friends is a political boss.*
12. Candidates for President of the United States are nominated by *caucus, direct primary, convention, congress.*
 13. The chief officers of each of the boroughs in the vicinity of our community are the *selectmen, burgesses, councilmen, commissioners.*
 14. Most bills that enter Congress begin with *the President, in either House, in the Cabinet, in the State Legislature.*
 15. Anyone who is accused of a crime against the Federal government may be pardoned by *the Supreme Court, Congress, the President, the Chief Justice.*
 16. The best way of getting good officers in the employ of the government is *the Civil Service Commission, the Spoils System, the Federal Trade Commission, political appointment.*
 17. The organization that does most to encourage industries to locate in our community is *the Board of Trade, the Council, the Chamber of Commerce, the Board of School Directors.*
 18. The organization that has done most to help the laboring class in America is *the Salvation Army, the Labor Union, the Chamber of Commerce.*
 19. The best way to organize a family income to spend it wisely is to have *a checking account, pay cash, have a budget, not to buy any luxuries, to have your money invested.*
 20. In general it is better to have disputes settled by *having a strike, fighting it out, referring it to be arbitrated, letting the other party have its say.*
 21. The attitude of our country in regard to foreign affairs has usually been *to enforce our own ideas, to show other nations how powerful we are, not to enter into foreign entanglements unless necessary.*
 22. By possessing liberty in America we mean *everyone can do as they like, we are free to say anything we want about anyone else, we may go wherever we please, we may do what we like as long as it does not interfere with the law or rights of others.*
 23. The last step before a bill becomes a law is *it is passed by the Cabinet, it is passed by the Senate, the President signs it, it is passed by the House.*
 24. The most important reason for the study of Civics is *to gain information on how the government is run, to teach us the causes of crime, to show the best way of dealing with life problems, to prepare for advanced study in American history, to tell us about our community.*

SECTION B

Fill in the correct answers in the following:

26. Three of our most important cabinet officers and their positions at the present time are:
 - a.
 - b.
 - c.
27. The law making branch of our national government is and consists of two houses, the and
28. The great fundamental law of every state is its
29. Our postal service has been very much speeded up in recent years by the addition of the

30. The most representative form of government such as we find in New England is the
31. The presiding officer of our House of Representatives is the
and the presiding officer of the Senate is the
32. When bills are introduced to our legislatures they are usually at once referred towhere they are considered.
33. If you had a question to refer to one of the departments at Washington, to which department would you write in the following cases:
a. If it dealt with insect pests?.....
b. If it had to do with weather forecasts?
c. If it had to do with counterfeit coins?
d. If it had to do with getting appointment at West Point?.....
e. If it had to do with Indian Reservations?
34. Questions that have to do with the interpretation of the Constitution are referred to the
35. If a man asked you what to do to get the street in front of his house paved what would you advise?

SECTION C—Good Judgment in Life Situations

What would you do in the following life situations? Suggest in a few words your solution. Use a separate sheet if you need more space. Four points to each question.

1. A visitor to your city laughingly criticises your city because of the poor condition of the streets. What would you say in defense?
2. On Election Day your mother says, "I am not going to vote; it is too much bother and my one vote does not count anyway." What would you say to her?
3. John has asked you to vote for Harry as class president. Harry is agreeable but does not try to pass in his studies and is failing in his school work. What would you say to John in reply?
4. A referee selected by the two coaches makes a decision which your school greets with jeers in one of your inter-scholastic football games. What would be your reaction?
5. If someone asked you about the Locarno Treaty and whether it had anything to do with the League of Nations.....
6. If your home life is not entirely satisfactory to you?.....

7. If someone should criticise us for spending too much money on education, how would you defend increased expenditures for school purposes?.....
8. Your teacher assigns some work to be completed on a certain day. Many in the class neglect to do the work because it requires work outside of school time. What would you do?.....

Standard and New Type Tests in the Social Studies

BY PROFESSOR R. M. TRYON, THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

When the history of measuring results in the social studies is written, three distinctive phases of the movement will stand out in bold relief. Prior to 1915 the traditional essay examination reigned supreme. The scientific study of educational processes by means of standard tests first made itself felt in the direction of objectively determining the results actually achieved and the standards to be attained in such subjects as reading, spelling, writing, and arithmetic. For the past decade, standard tests in these subjects have been the instruments used objectively to determine the kind of results demanded by the scientific movement in education which arose soon after 1900. As hinted above, however, standard tests in the field of history to replace the traditional essay examination began to appear in 1915. Since this date much energy has been spent in making and in attempting to standardize tests in history and the other social studies. To date, however, it seems that the idea of standard tests in history will probably have to be abandoned. The unstandardized new type tests which began to get serious consideration about three years ago are doing much to make the standard tests somewhat unnecessary adjuncts to the testing of achievements in the social studies. Definite conclusions, however, as to the future of standard tests in the social studies will have to wait further developments in the field.

While the traditional written examination in the social studies is not treated in the discussion which follows, it ought to be remarked in passing that on the basis of actual use it is still paramount. In spite of all of its defects, thousands of teachers of the social studies still make it their chief tool for determining the results of their teaching. Until scientifically determined means have been provided, teachers will continue to use traditional ones for testing their students. The present status of the written examination in the social studies would seem to indicate that improvement rather than abolishment is what is needed. Even the most ardent supporters of the

standardized and new type tests still feel that there is value in the traditional written examination if it is discriminately and judiciously used.

STANDARD TESTS IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

In 1915 there appeared in the *Texas History Teachers' Bulletin* an account of some work that D. F. McCollum had recently done in tests in United States history. Under the direction of Professor J. Carleton Bell, who was then at the University of Texas, Mr. McCollum formulated a test in United States history and made some progress toward standardizing it. The article mentioned below by Bell and McCollum in the *Journal of Educational Psychology* contains an elaborate and more or less complete account of the work on this first published attempt to make standard tests in history. The article by Sackett in Volume X of the *Journal of Educational Psychology*, also mentioned below, describes the final work that was done on the Bell-McCollum test. This was in 1919. During four or five years after this date the test could be purchased in quantities under the title, "A Scale in United States History." It is now out of print.

Since the feeble, yet significant beginning, made by Bell and McCollum in 1915, there have appeared in print for distribution not less than thirty so-called standard tests in history and four in civics. An elaborate consideration of each of these would lengthen this discussion beyond reasonable bounds. For practical purposes it seems better merely to list the tests along with a brief annotation of each. Such a treatment will enable anyone interested in a specific test to secure it in quantities or make no effort to secure it if the annotation says that it is out of print.

AN ANNOTATED LIST OF STANDARD TESTS IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

1. Test in United States History, by J. Carleton Bell and D. F. McCollum. Out of print.

First published in 1915 and subsequently arranged for circulation by L. W. Sackett. The first test of its

kind ever to appear. Inasmuch as it is now out of print, its practical value is very meager. However, when the history of the testing movement in history is written, it will loom large in the story.

2. American History Test, Series A, by Daniel Starch. Madison, Wisconsin: University Co-operative Company.

First published in 1916. Probably the second of its type in history ever published. Consists of sixty-one mutilated sentences. Is intended for grade six and above. Entirely of the completion form. Of value to show what history tests ought not to be.

3. Test of Information in American History, by C. L. Harlan. Bloomington, Ill.: The Public School Publishing Company.

First published 1917. Its purpose is to test information in grades seven and above. It is composed of ten exercises, under each of which from two to five facts are given. One test is needed for each pupil. Inexpensive. Directions for giving and a record sheet for scoring are available. Purchaser ought to see a sample before ordering in quantity.

4. A Scale in Ancient History, by L. W. Sackett. Out of print.

First published in 1917. Much like the Bell-McCollum test in United States history. Being out of print, it no longer has a practical value, thus making any further comments on it unnecessary.

5. Exercises in United States History, by S. B. Davis. Pittsburgh, Pa.: The University of Pittsburgh.

Two parallel tests, A and B, which first appeared in 1917. Test A is composed of 41 exercises based on colonial history; test B of 44 exercises based on the same period. The exercises are informational in character, with multiple choice answers. Directions for giving and scoring, as well as a key, are available.

6. Spokane United States History Tests, by O. C. Pratt and others. Out of print.

This test appeared in January, 1918. It was used to measure the information and knowledge of United States history possessed by the 8A pupils in the Spokane School System. It was probably the first attempt at a uniform and standardized test in history in a public school system. This is its chief value now, inasmuch as it is no longer available.

7. Diagnostic Tests in American History, by A. S. Barr. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Company.

First published in 1918. Various improvements and editions since this date. They attempt to measure comprehension, chronological judgment, historical evidence, evaluation of facts, and causal relationships. Two series, 2A and 2B, similar in construction and arrangement. Grade range, 8 to 12, inclusive. One test needed for each pupil.

8. Van Wagenen American History Scales, by M. J. Van Wagenen. New York: Bureau of Publication, Teachers' College, Columbia University.

These scales were originally published in 1919. Since that time many revisions and improvements have been made. They aim to measure information, thought, and character judgment. There are now on the market scales for grades five and six, seven and eight, and nine to twelve. All of the scales are standardized.

9. Diagnostic Tests in Modern European History, by C. G. Vannest. Bloomington, Indiana: Bureau of Co-operation Research.

The first test of its kind in Modern European history to be published. It appeared in 1921. It is composed of a time test, a place test, evaluation of facts, thought, and information. It is patterned after Barr's tests in American history.

10. The Hahn History Scales, by H. H. Hahn. Bloomington, Ill.: The Public School Publishing Company.

First published in 1920 and revised in 1922. Aims to measure information, comprehension, and judgment in American history. Contains two distinct scales on the same sheet, one in light-face type for the eighth

grade and one in black-face type for the seventh grade. But one scale is needed for each teacher or examiner.

11. A Test for the Understanding of American History, by L. W. Pressey and R. C. Richards. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Company.

First published in 1922. Composed of four separate tests of twenty-six exercises each. Can be used in grades 6 to 12, inclusive. Character judgment, historical vocabulary, sequence of events, and cause and effect relationships are the things tested.

12. The Plymouth Educational Tests in United States History. Chicago: The Plymouth Press.

These tests consist of three series, 80A, 81A, and 82A. They are intended for grades six, seven, and eight. No. 80A aims to measure association between events and dates; No. 81A between events and names; and No. 82A between names and events. Inexpensive tests of one psychological aspect of the learning process in history, name association. The tests appeared in 1922.

13. Gregory Tests in American History, by C. A. Gregory. Cincinnati, Ohio: Author, College of Education, The University of Cincinnati.

Originally appeared in 1923. The revised edition consists of two tests of two forms each. Test I, Forms A and B, is for the seventh grade, and Test II, Forms A and B, is for the eighth grade. There is a Test III not revised in two forms, A and B, and is intended for grades 9 to 12, inclusive. This test covers the whole field of American history, as do Tests I and II combined.

14. Standardized Test on the Constitution of the United States, by J. C. Lindsey and L. M. Fort. Mitchell, South Dakota: The Constitution Publishing Company.

This is a completion test based on the constitution of the United States. It reproduces the entire constitution except 400 crucial words, which the student is expected to place in the blank spaces left for them. It was copyrighted in 1924.

15. Background Tests in Social Science, by Tyler Kepner. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press.

The first tests to appear in the general field. They were copyrighted in 1924. They exist in two forms, A and B, each containing seven exercises. Their primary purpose is diagnostic. They include questions and exercises in history, geography, civics, and literature.

16. Tests for the Measurement and Analysis of Ability in History, by R. E. Mendenhall. Oskaloosa, Iowa: The Author.

These tests were copyrighted in 1925. They are composed of eleven individual timed tests, all arranged in an eight-page folder. Tentative norms have been established for eighth grade, high school, college freshmen, and advanced college. The historical material in the tests is largely from the United States history field.

17. A Test in Civic Information and A Test in Civic Attitudes, by Howard C. Hill. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Company.

Two widely used tests in civics. Each is composed of twenty exercises of the multiple choice type. Norms based on 7000 papers are provided for grades six to twelve, inclusive. These tests were placed on the market in 1926.

18. Brown-Moody Civics Test, by A. W. Brown and Clifford Moody. Yonkers, New York: The World Book Company.

On the first page of this test the student is told that it is a test to see how well he has mastered the study of civics. It is in three parts; intended for grades 7 to 12, and aims to test civic thinking, civic information, and civic vocabulary. It was placed on the market in 1926.

Besides the foregoing eighteen tests which have been standardized in varying degrees of extensivity,

there have appeared from time to time special and unstandardized tests. For example, in connection with the survey of history in the schools that Professor Dawson recently made, a test which is listed below as "The History Curricula Inquiry Test in American History," was used. No attempt was made to standardize this test. Other examples of tests used for a special purpose are "True-False Test in Roman History," and "General Information Test in American History." Both are listed below. The Denver, Moyer, Miller, Stormzand and Boston tests which appear in the list are examples of what is now spoken of as new type tests.

SPECIAL AND UNSTANDARDIZED TESTS IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

1. Government I, by W. B. Munro. Cambridge, Mass.: The Author, Harvard University.

A test which was prepared several years ago for use in Professor Munro's classes in Government I. It is now somewhat out of date. It is composed of four parts: I. Vocabulary; II. Information; III. Chronology; IV. Intelligence. Valuable for the suggestions it contains. Date of first use unknown to the writer.

2. Upton, Siegfried M., and Chassell, Clara F., *A Scale for Measuring the Importance of Habits of Good Citizenship*. New York: Teachers' College, Columbia University, 1921.

The material in this pamphlet was first published in *Teachers' College Record*, XX (1919), 36ff. The original scale contained 187 items. Three years later, eight short scales, based on the original material, were published. These appeared in *Teachers' College Record*, XXIII (1923), 52ff.

3. Informational Tests in United States History to Accompany Beard and Bagley's *History of the American People*, by S. B. Davis and E. E. Hicks. New York: The Macmillan Company.

These tests were placed on the market in 1920. They are of the multiple choice type. There are seven tests in the set, one for each of the main chronological divisions of United States history. They may be used for a number of purposes.

4. True-False Test in Roman History, Late Republican Period, by S. B. Davis and E. E. Hicks. Out of print.

A test which was constructed for a special purpose. It appeared in 1922 and was used by the American Classic League in its investigations of the extent the pupils' knowledge of Roman history is aided by the study of Caesar and Cicero. Being unavailable, it no longer has a practical value.

5. Chassell, Clara F., "A Test and Teaching Device in Citizenship for Use with Junior High School Pupils." *Educational Administration and Supervision*, X (1924), 7ff.

A suggested test of ability to weigh foreseen consequences. The test was given in the spring of 1922 to 86 sixth-grade pupils in the Horace Mann School of Teachers' College. It consists of seven stories and twelve accompanying problems.

6. Gold, Mary S., "Testing Vocabulary in History." *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, XVII (1926), pp. 285ff.

This is a series of multiple choice tests based entirely on words. Students are asked to select from a list of four or five the word that most correctly completes the meaning of a sentence, most accurately fits a definition, and most nearly corresponds in meaning to a given word. An excellent test of the students' knowledge of a long list of terms frequently met in the social studies.

7. The History Curricula Inquiry Test in American History. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, Institute of Educational Research.

This test is in two parts. Part I contains 150 questions, Part II 30. All of the questions are of the

multiple choice type. The test was constructed for a special purpose, hence never placed on the market for general use. It is probably now unavailable. It was copyrighted in 1923.

8. A Test of Civic Information, by W. H. Burton. Chicago: The Author, School of Education, The University of Chicago.

Probably this is the most objectively made test in its field yet to appear. It was constructed in 1924 for use in a specific investigation, but probably will be available for general distribution in the near future. The test can be used in any grade above the fifth. In all, it contains thirty-two information questions in each of three sections.

9. How Well Do I Know the Constitution? New York: Institute for Public Service, 1125 Amsterdam Avenue.

A simple test on the Constitution of the United States. It is composed of three groups of questions. Group I is made up of twenty true-false statements; Group II of ten completion exercises; and Group III of ten multiple choice exercises. The copyright date is 1924.

10. Boston Research Tests in United States History, by Olivia C. Penell. Never published for distribution. May be secured in *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, XV (1924), 128ff.

These tests aim to measure ability in United States history. There are three separate tests, one for sixth grade, one for seventh, and one for eighth. The test for the sixth grade contains five parts; the one for the seventh, ten parts; and the one for the eighth, fifteen parts. All are similar in construction and arrangement.

11. Comprehension Seventh and Eighth Grade History Tests, by E. E. Witham. Cambridge, Mass.: J. L. Hammett Company.

Copyrighted in 1924. Four tests in the series. Nos. 1 and 2 are for grade seven, and 3 and 4 for grade eight. They are all based on American history, those for the seventh grade covering the period prior to 1776 and those for the eighth the period between 1776 and 1865.

12. American History Exercises, by J. F. Tyrrell. Boston: The Palmer Company, 120 Boylston Street.

These tests are arranged in nine sections, each section containing some true-false, completion, and recognition exercise. They cover the periods of exploration and colonization in American history. In all, there are thirty separate sheets. They were published in 1925. No norms have been established for them.

13. Curriculum Tests in Social Science, in World History, and in United States History and Government. Denver, Colorado: Denver Public Schools.

These tests represent the new movement in testing which is usually known as the new type examination. After the curriculum revision in the social studies had been placed in the hands of teachers, the Research Bureau of the Denver Schools constructed and administered tests based on the units of instruction used in each grade above the sixth. They are the most promising tests of any known to the writer. They appeared in 1925.

14. General Information Test in American History. Iowa City, Iowa: Professor G. M. Ruch.

This is a recall test which was made for experimental purposes only. It was used in the Commonwealth Investigation of the social sciences which was conducted during the school year of 1925-1926. It cannot be secured in quantities.

15. Stormzand, M. J., *American History Teaching and Testing*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1925.

An elaborate scheme for testing in the field of American history. More than 100 pages of tests of many types. They are all based on one textbook and intended for junior high school pupils.

16. Moyer, F. E., *Self-Testing Review Book of American History and Government*. New York: Self-Test Publishing Company, 603 West 51st Street, 1925.

The purpose of this book is to supply the pupil with a quantity of new type tests, whereby he can find out for himself what he does and does not know. Answers to each exercise are given. These are placed at the end of the book. Each student in the class is expected to have a copy of the book.

17. Miller, G. F., *Objective Tests in High School Subjects*. Norman, Oklahoma: The Author.

This is a pamphlet of 168 pages which appeared in 1926. It contains tests in algebra, biology, chemistry, civics, English, French, history, Latin, and physics. There are eight civics tests and the same number of history tests. In many cases the tests consist of statements quoted directly from a text in the field.

THE NEW TYPE TEST IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

During the past two or three years much has been said and written about the new type test or examination. Monroe's pamphlet on *The Present Status of Written Examinations and Suggestions for Their Improvement*, published in 1923, was the first serious effort to point out the good and the bad in the old and suggest ways and means of improvement. Monroe's study of the general problem was followed by one which made history its special reference. This study appeared in 1924. It was made by S. G. Brinkley and published by Teachers College, Columbia University, under the title *Values of New Type Examinations in the High School*. Paterson's *Preparation and Use of the New Type Examinations* appeared in 1925, and Ruch's *The Improvement of the Written Examination* a year earlier. These four treatments of the subject, appearing as they did, one right after another in less than three years, indicate the importance attached to the subject by workers in the field.

New type tests in the social studies may or may not be standardized—usually they are not. Some of the unstandardized tests mentioned above which might be placed in the new type class are Miller's *Objective Tests in High School Subjects*, Moyer's *Self-Testing Review Book of American History and Government*, Stormzand's tests in his *American History Teaching and Testing*, the Denver Tests, the Boston Research Tests, and Burton's Test of Civic Information. There are many samples of new type tests in the books by Monroe, Brinkley, Paterson, and Ruch mentioned above.

The chief advantages claimed for the new type test over the traditional or old type examination by its advocates are: (1) More reliable, valid, objective, and comprehensive than the old type; (2) more economical of the teacher's time; (3) better than the old for diagnostic purposes; (4) encourages desirable study habits; (5) tests ability to organize facts, apply facts and solve problems; (6) less dependent than the old type on physical endurance and the ability to write, spell, and compose. Not all of these claims have been established by scientific experimentation. Most of them are still in the hypothesis stage.

To those who expect to make use of the new tests the various forms or types are of great importance.

For practical purposes in the field of history the following types are useful: simple recall, completion, best answer or single choice, plural or multiple choice, arrangement, true-false, matching, essay, definition of terms, identification, and map test. In order to make these types clear to the reader brief samples of most of them appear below:

SAMPLES OF NEW TYPE TESTS IN HISTORY

- One-word or phrase answer recall type.
 - Give a name for the Washington Conference that will describe its purpose?
 - The World War Peace Treaty was signed at
 - Who was President of the United States during the Mexican war?
- Completion Form of Recall Type.
 - "54-40 or" was a slogan used during the settlement of the boundary dispute.
 - One good result of the Spanish-American War is seen in the better relations existing between and and between and
 - The Battle of in the War of 1812 was fought the Treaty of was signed.
- True-False Form of the Recognition Type.

T F a. Lincoln's first purpose in entering upon the Civil War was to free the slaves.

T F b. The United States Supreme Court Justices are elected by the people.

T F c. Jackson was the first President to make excessive use of the Spoils System.

T F d. Robert Walker was Polk's Secretary of the Treasury.
- Single Choice Among Three or More Alternatives Form of the Recognition Type.
 - Each state has power under the Constitution of the United States to (1) coin money, (2) declare war, (3) establish schools, (4) tax imports, (5) appoint postmasters.
 - The first American victory in the Spanish-American War was at (1) Manila, (2) El Caney, (3) Santiago, (4) Porto Rico, (5) Havana.
 - The period following the Spanish-American War was marked by (1) the renewal of the silver controversy, (2) labor disputes and agitation, (3) struggle for colonial expansion in the Orient.
- Plural Choice Among Five or More Alternatives Form of the Recognition Type.
 - In the following list underline the names of the persons who have been President of the United States: (1) Hamilton, (2) John Tyler, (3) Henry Clay, (4) Andrew Johnson, (5) Henry Adams, (6) James G. Blaine, (7) Daniel Webster.
 - Underline in the following list each place where a famous battle was once fought: (1) Jamestown, (2) Saratoga, (3) Cleveland, (4) Gettysburg, (5) Quebec, (6) Denver, (7) Bull Run.
 - In the following list of states underline those which comprised the Northwest Territory: (1) Montana, (2) Illinois, (3) Washington, (4) Wyoming, (5) Wisconsin, (6) Indiana, (7) North Dakota, (8) Michigan, (9) Oregon, (10) Minnesota.
- Pairing or Matching Form of the Recognition Type.
 - Below is a list of Presidents and one event in the administration of each. Match or pair each event with its appropriate administration:

Presidents	Answer	Chief Events
1. Thomas Jefferson	Rise of the Spoils System.
2. James Madison	Dred Scott Decision.
3. Andrew Jackson	Fourteenth Amendment.
4. James K. Polk	Building Panama Canal.
5. James Buchanan	The Civil War.

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|------------------------|-------|-------------------------------|
| 6. Abraham Lincoln | | Panic of 1873. |
| 7. Andrew Johnson | | Louisiana Purchase. |
| 8. U. S. Grant | | Resumption of Specie Payment. |
| 9. R. R. Hayes | | The Credit Mobilier. |
| 10. Grover Cleveland | | The War with Spain. |
| 11. William McKinley | | The Mexican War. |
| 12. Theodore Roosevelt | | The War of 1812. |

b. Match each event in the following exercise with the name of the person most directly connected with it:

Men	Answer	Events
1. George Dewey	Invention of Sewing Machine.
2. Harvey W. Wiley	Louisiana Purchase.
3. Thomas Jefferson	Missouri Compromise.
4. Robert E. Lee	Development of Banking System.
5. William J. Bryan	Pure Food Laws.
6. Alexander Hamilton	President of the Confederacy.
7. Elias Howe	Capture of Manila.
8. Robert Fulton	Advocate of Free Silver.
9. Henry Clay	Steamboat.
10. Jefferson Davis	Commander of Confederate Armies.

7. Arrangement Form of the Recognition Type.

a. Arrange the following events of the Revolutionary War in chronological order, putting (1) before the event that happened first:

- () Battle of Bunker Hill.
- () Capture of Vincennes.
- () Surrender of Cornwallis.
- () Surrender of Burgoyne.
- () Washington driven from New York.

b. Arrange the following items in the order in which they were incorporated into the Constitution of the United States:

- () Popular Election of Senators.
- () Popular Election of Representatives.
- () Removal of Race Restriction on Voting.
- () Removal of Sex Restrictions on Voting.
- () Religious Freedom.

c. Arrange the names in the list below in pairs. Pair those prominent in American history about the same time. Number the pairs according to a scheme of your own selection.

Benjamin Franklin.
John Cabot.
Daniel Webster.
George Washington.
General Montcalm.
Christopher Columbus.
James Monroe.
John C. Calhoun.
James Madison.
General Wolf.

COMPOSITE TESTS WHICH INCLUDE THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Besides the tests listed and discussed above, mention ought to be made of at least five standardized composite tests in which history and the other social studies are given some attention. Probably the best known and most widely used test of this type is the *Stanford Achievement Test* by Kelley, Ruch and Terman, published in 1922 by the World Book Company. This is a battery of achievement tests intended to measure the knowledge and ability of pupils in grades four to eight, inclusive, in such subjects as arithmetic, reading, spelling, science, history and literature.

There are two equivalent forms, A and B. Both age and grade norms have been established.

The other composite tests to which the reader's attention is called are *The Otis Classification Test, An Educational Survey Test, A Scale of Attainments No. 2*, and *Iowa High School Content Examination*. The Otis test was published by the World Book Company in 1923. Part I, the achievement test consists of a list of 115 questions, among which are found some on history and civics. Pintner and Fitzgerald's *Educational Survey Test* was published in 1918. It can be secured in quantities from College Book Store, Columbus, Ohio. It is made up of eight separate tests, the last one being a test in history. *Scale of Attainment No. 2* is intended to measure achievement in American history, arithmetic, English grammar, and reading vocabulary. It appeared in 1921. Its author, S. L. Pressey, was then at Indiana University, where it is now to be attained from the Department of Psychology. *The Iowa High School Content Examination* was devised by Professor G. M. Ruch and his assistants at the State University of Iowa. Form B was copyrighted in 1924 and Form A in 1925. Section 4 of each Form contains questions in history and the social sciences. There are 115 multiple-choice questions in Form B and 75 in Form A. The tests are no longer on the market, inasmuch as their original use, namely, to section college classes, has been discontinued. One might secure samples of this test by writing Professor Ruch at the University of Iowa.

MAGAZINE MATERIAL DEALING PRIMARILY WITH STANDARD TESTS IN HISTORY

Besides the history tests themselves, there is a small body of magazine literature dealing with their origin, standardization, purpose, and use. For the critical student, who wants to get at the bottom of the testing movement in history, this literature is very valuable. Furthermore, there are in print at least two good surveys of the testing movement as it relates especially to history. These are the articles by Kepner and Miss Elston, which are listed below. There is, of course, a large body of general and theoretical material dealing with the measurement of achievements in the social studies which is not listed here. The list is selective rather than exhaustive. Only those articles or discussions which treat the tests mentioned in this article or give a general survey of the field are included. Of these the writer was able to locate and actually read the following:

1. Bell, J. C., and McCollum, D. F., "A Study of the Attainments of Pupils in United States History." *Journal of Educational Psychology*, VIII (1917), 256 ff.
The Bell-McCollum test in American history and the results attained from administering it to over 1400 students in Texas are found in this article. Its value now is chiefly historical. This material was first published in 1915 in *Texas History Teachers' Bulletin*.
2. Brinkley, S. G., *Value of New Type Examinations in the High School With Special Reference to History*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1924.

The most elaborate experimental study that has

appeared in its special field. Of great value to one interested in the new type tests in history.

3. Buckingham, B. R., "Correlation Between Ability to Think and Ability to Remember, With Special Reference to United States History." *School and Society*, V (1917), 443ff.

Reports a study which attempted to determine the relation existing between memory and reasoning in the field of United States history. Shows a high correlation between the two.

4. Buckingham, B. R., "A Proposed Index of Efficiency in Teaching United States History." *Journal of Educational Research*, I (1920), 16ff.

A critical and technical consideration of the early edition of Van Wagenen's tests, along with a discussion of the correlation between information and judgments tests in history.

5. Elston, Bertha, "Improving the Teaching of History in the High School Through the Use of Tests." *The Historical Outlook*, XIV (1923), 300ff.

Besides giving a list of all of the tests on the market when her article was written, Miss Elston discusses five major problems relative to the making and the using of tests in history. Valuable to those who wish to do original work in the field.

6. Harlan, C. L., "Educational Measurement in the Field of History." *Journal of Educational Research*, II (1920), 849ff.

A consideration of the difficulties in testing historical knowledge and ability. Contains a number of excellent criteria for evaluating tests in history.

7. Henmon, V. A. C., "Some Limitations of Educational Tests." *Journal of Educational Research*, VII (1923), 185ff.

A technical discussion of a comparative study of history tests of the thought and information type. The tests used were those by Van Wagenen, Starch, Bell-McCollum, Barr, and Harlan.

8. Griffith, G. L., "Harlan's American History Test in the New Trier Township Schools." *School Review*, XXVIII (1920), 697ff.

A brief discussion of history in general, the use of history in the public schools, evaluation and standardization of the minimum history essentials in our public schools, use and methods of devising and administering history tests, and Harlan's tests in New Trier eighth grade. Of value to those who wish to use Harlan's Tests.

9. Kepner, P. T., "A Survey of the Testing Movement in History." *Journal of Educational Research*, VII (1923), 309ff.

A list of twenty-two tests, thirteen of which were available for use when the article was written. An excellent discussion and adverse criticism of existing tests. Excellent for historical purposes.

10. Moran, Marion, "Standardized Tests in History." *Chicago School Journal*, V (1923), 198ff.

Similar in content to the article written by Harlan in 1920 and appearing in *Journal of Educational Research*. Emphasizes criteria for judging history tests.

11. Myers, G. C., "Delayed Recall in History." *Journal of Educational Psychology*, VIII (1917), 275ff.

Reports the results attained in a test composed of fifty names connected with American history. Supposed to test the rate or amount of forgetting. Of no particular value to one interested in history tests.

12. Odell, C. W., "The Barr Diagnostic Tests in American History." *School and Society*, XVI (1922), 501ff.

A report of the results attained from the use of Barr's tests in the American history classes of the South Bend, Indiana, High School. Rather technical. Of little value to the classroom teacher who is seeking practical suggestions.

13. Pratt, O. C., "The Spokane U. S. History Test." *Journal of Educational Research*, III (1921), 155ff.

A brief discussion of the origin and subsequent use of this test by the superintendent of the schools in which it originated. A good summary of the advantages of the test.

14. Pressey, S. L., "An Examination for Measuring History, Arithmetic, and English in the Eighth Grade." *Journal of Educational Research*, III (1921), 395ff.

This article describes a scale in history, arithmetic, and English. The history questions are of the single-choice form of the recognition type. They have no particular merit.

15. Rugg, E. U., "Character and Value of Standardized Tests in History." *School Review*, XXXII (1919), 757ff.

Besides a list of tests in existence when it was written, this article sets up certain standards of value and discusses each test according to them.

16. Sackett, L. W., "A Scale in Ancient History." *Journal of Educational Psychology*, VIII (1917), 284ff.

A discussion of the Sackett Scale in Ancient history. This was the original appearance of this scale. The article has historical value chiefly.

17. Sackett, L. W., "A Scale in United States History." *Journal of Educational Psychology*, X (1919), 345ff.

A technical discussion of the derivation of the scale values assigned to the Bell-McCollum tests in United States history. Of little present-day value except for historical purposes.

18. Vannest, C. G., "Diagnostic Test in Modern European History." *Bulletin of the Extension Division*, Indiana University, Vol. VI, No. 12, pp. 59ff.

A description of the test in modern European history by its author. Not worth looking up if one has the test.

THE PROBABLE FUTURE OF TESTS IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

It has now been more than a decade since the first standard test in history appeared. The outcomes of the movement to date have been negative rather than positive. We know much more now about what ought not be done than we did ten years ago, but have advanced but little in what ought to be done. To date no test in history has been generally accepted and widely used, as has been the case in arithmetic, writing, reading, and language. It seems that certain obstacles have arisen which the testing movement in the social studies has been unable to overcome. Specifically stated some of these are:

1. When a test is once seen and used by a class, its value for subsequent use is greatly diminished, if not entirely destroyed.

2. To date no one has succeeded in making a high grade test in history which is as readily given and as easily graded as is demanded of tests in general.

3. The demand that history tests in so far as possible be independent of attainments in other subjects has been difficult to meet.

4. History test-makers have had difficulty in devising exercises that test a variety of mental processes. Too many of the exercises now available test memory only.

5. There is a demand that a test in history cover a wide range of facts such as dates, names, places, periods, events, and terms. Inasmuch as these facts have never been standardized, it has been impossible for the author of a test to know what ones to include.

6. To meet the demand that each exercise in a test must require an unequivocal answer has not always

been easy. When memory alone is tested this is easy, but not so easy when faculties like reasoning, association, and comparison, are included.

7. The number of cases demanded to standardize a test is so large that no maker of history tests has ever been able to reach it. In other words, there have been many pseudo-standard tests in history, but few, if any, real ones available since the first effort to standardize them.

Recent Happenings in the Social Studies

BY COMMITTEE ON CURRENT INFORMATION

W. G. KIMMEL, CHAIRMAN

The place of information and testing of information in American History are studied in detail by Elene Michell in *Tests in American History with Special Reference to the Improvement of Instruction* (Doctor's Thesis, Graduate School of Education, Harvard University, 1926. Copies on file in the Harvard Library). The study includes a discussion of the meaning of the teaching of history, a detailed analysis of the place of factual information in relation to reflective thinking in the study of history, a presentation of the uses which the teacher can make of history tests in the improvement of instruction, and an analysis of the different forms of tests adapted for use in history classes. The author devised composite tests of different forms for use in history classes; each test increases in difficulty, and two forms of each test were developed. Two review tests were also constructed. The tests were constructed from the point of view of teaching, "designed to measure learning in American History in progressive stages." An experiment was conducted in which the tests were administered to more than 500 high school pupils enrolled in American History courses in two school systems in Massachusetts and in two schools in California. The tests were given at regular intervals during the term as pupils completed parts of the course. Pupils were informed concerning the administration of the tests, and simple statistical procedures were explained to them. In short, the testing program formed a part of the teaching procedure.

The author attempted to answer three questions through data derived from the experiment: "(1) are civic attitudes and ideals dependent on specific knowledge of the development and structure of our government; (2) how can instruction in American History be put upon a basis of functional understanding; (3) can any element essential in learning this subject be measured objectively?" While the tests used are confined to the measurement of information, the results are treated in such a manner that the author has provided affirmative answers to the questions raised in the experiment. Space does not permit a detailed presentation of results. In addition to the main purpose of the experiment, much material is presented to show the results in relation to the I Q's of the pupils, teacher's marks, and variations among teachers in objectivity in marking. The author's purpose in showing "What can be done with the new type of examination in history, especially from the teaching point of view," has resulted in a study that should stimulate similar experiments in the field.

Since the recent war "international affairs" has become a subject of increasing importance in the schools. J. M. Nason, in *International Relations as Revealed by Editorials, Cartoons, and Textbooks in American History* (M. A. Thesis, University of Chicago, 1925. Copies on file in University of Chicago Libraries), has brought together data on the subject from three daily newspapers, three weekly magazines, one monthly magazine, and seven textbooks in United States History.

If the foregoing seven obstacles can be overcome by the history test-makers, we may possibly see some standard tests in history. If these obstacles are insurmountable, attention had better be turned to the new type unstandardized test, for in these some hope seems to dwell. This is true because they are valuable *teaching* as well as *testing* exercises.

"The purposes of the investigation are: (1) To discover the chief international problems and the relative importance of each. (2) To discover the countries with which we are most vitally concerned and of which we need the most detailed information. (3) To check, where possible, the evidence found in histories with that found in editorials and cartoons. (4) In the light of the foregoing to indicate desirable changes in our school curricula, with a view to bettering international relations."

The investigation was carried forward in a thorough manner. Some of the more important findings are: (1) An average of 33.6 per cent. of the topics in the history textbooks are concerned with international affairs; (2) an average of 22.5 per cent. of the pictures in history texts deal with international affairs; (3) the more recent texts devote a larger amount of space to phases of international relations; (4) an average of 47.5 per cent. of all topics dealing with international affairs are concerned with wars. Practical suggestions are made for better understanding of international affairs through the study of history.

W. H. Shepard, and others, in the *Course of Study in Community Life Problems* (Minneapolis Public Schools, 1925-1926), have made a worth-while contribution to the teaching of civics in at least three respects. The definite and concrete suggestions for class trips and visits should stimulate a program of similar activities in schools in other cities. Aims for each unit of the course are stated in terms of pupil experience, and are related to the most general aims of the course. A "Syllabus of Pupil Activities," which was developed out of local experiments, covers thirteen pages of the manual. In addition to the features mentioned, the course of study contains a bibliography, a statement of local community survey, and suggestions for parliamentary procedure in class meetings. Credit is given for suggestions and materials taken from outside sources. The manual is worthy as a contribution to the teaching of civics.

The present status of the teaching of the social studies in the high schools of Texas forms the materials published by S. M. N. Marrs and Katherine Bradford Henderson in *The Teaching of History and Other Social Subjects* (Bulletin, State Department of Education, Vol. II, No. 8, August, 1926). The bulletin deals with the present status, aims, methods, suggested courses, and equipment in the teaching of the social studies. Certain phases of the present status of the social studies in Texas are: (1) 70 per cent. of the teachers have degrees, while 15 per cent. have had no previous teaching experience; (2) most high schools possess sufficient equipment for adequate instruction; (3) better methods of teaching are in vogue, but the authors list twelve common weaknesses in method; (4) the Autumn reports of 1925 for Freshmen in college show that the total enrollments in history rank lowest in five subjects, with next to the lowest rank in failures (12.57

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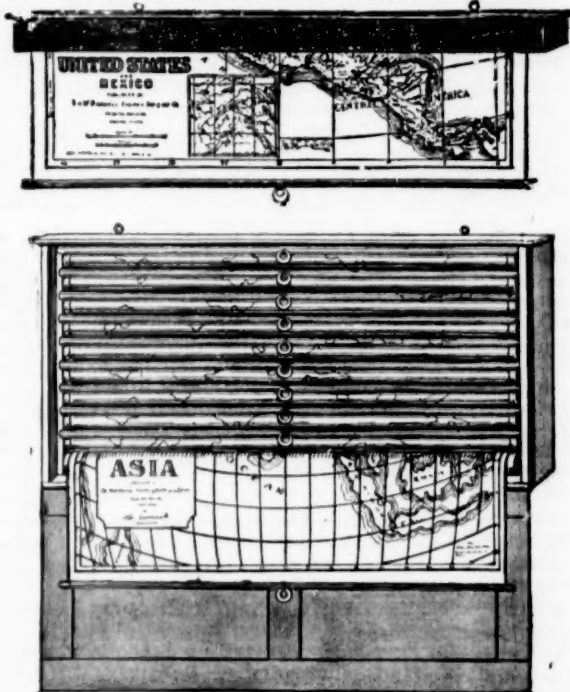
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per cent.); (5) the main cause of the failures of college freshmen "is their inability to obtain with a fair degree of ease a clear, definite meaning of the historical material given them to manipulate." An adequate discussion is given of the different methods of teaching the social studies, written work, teaching of current news, the notebook, correlation with English, and tests measurements. The suggested courses in history and civics are outlines of chapters of textbooks ordinarily used.

Courses of study in the social studies at the junior high school level, published from time to time, represent constructive efforts in curriculum building. R. W. Hatch and De Forest Stull have recently published *The Social Studies in the Horace Mann School* (Teachers' College, Columbia University, 1926). The program is: Grade VII; The Cradle of Civilization; Grade VIII; The Development of Western Europe and Its Expansions into the New World; Grade IX; The United States and Its World Relationships. Each course is organized about the "fusion" of content materials taken from history, geography, and civics; the authors make a distinction between "fusion" and "correlation," the difference being that the term "fusion" apparently makes for the loss of identity of traditional subject-matter. Complete outlines are presented for Grades VII and VIII; materials have not been developed for Grade IX. Each course is organized about major and minor problems, and the present-day implications, where possible, furnish the point of departure in the development of problems for study. A list of important dates and a bibliography of texts and reference books are included in the volume.

Studies based on an attempt to evaluate the results of instruction in the social studies generally approach the problem from varying points of view. W. J. Osburn, in *Are We Making Good at History Teaching?* (Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Ill., 1926), has attempted to summarize data from 2,250 final examinations in history in order to ascertain what teachers expect pupils to know when they have completed courses in history. More than 56,000 questions were analyzed. The results show that there is a tremendous amount of duplication in content materials in United States History at the elementary-school and high-school levels, that elementary teachers are agreed upon materials to be tested to a greater extent than high-school teachers, that more than seventy-five per cent. of all questions require merely the memorization of facts. When the questions are classified on the basis of aims of the teaching of history, results show that the questions asked of pupils are not in agreement with the most valid objectives, as currently agreed upon by authorities in the field. Some examples of the newer types of tests are included in the report. Heads of departments and instructors in the teaching of the social studies will need copies of this report.

The Occasional Leaflet is published by the Southern California Social Science Association, with Miss Hettie A. Withey, Chaffee Union High School, Ontario, California, as editor. It contains practically helpful and inspirational articles. In Volume III, Number 1, one finds discussed, "The Salesmanship of a Social Science Department," by Miss Abbie N. Fletcher, Woodrow Wilson High School, Long Beach; "The Great Procession," in which Miss Anna Stewart, of Los Angeles High School, graphically lists various changes which crowd one upon another in our educational procedure; and an article entitled, "Teaching of Economics in the Senior High School," by Miss Violet Hess, Long Beach, in which the writer recognizes the dearth of teaching suggestions for this subject. A feature of special note is the department called "Interrogatio," conducted by the editor. Experiences and estimates in relation to the newer types of tests are reviewed and summed up in this number.

Materials on the League of Nations and the Permanent Court of International Justice may be obtained from the World Peace Foundation, 40 Mt. Vernon Street, Boston, Mass., and from Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, 407 West 117th Street, New York City. Pamphlets published by both organizations may be purchased at five cents per copy; the annual subscription for all current publications is twenty-five cents.

Considerable sound advice and counsel is given to British teachers of history in a small amount of space in "The Scope and Aims of History Teachers in Schools Where the Leaving Age is, As a Rule, Under Sixteen," a "Memorandum forwarded by the Council of the Historical Associations to the Consultative Committee of the Board of Education," published in *History* (London), XI (October, 1926), 219-222. The report deals with the aims of history teaching, the preparation of a syllabus, and provides brief suggestions on equipment and methods.

"A Representative Assembly at the University High School" (University of Illinois) is a discussion of the organization of high-school pupils as the House of Representatives, by Donald R. Alter, in *Instructional Activities in the University High School*, Educational Research Circular No. 47, University of Illinois Bulletin, XXIV (November 30, 1926), No. 13. The steps in organization are discussed briefly, and a list of activities is presented.

Lynn M. Barrett, in the November issue of the University High School Journal (Berkeley, California), contributes some excellent suggestions for teaching the main features of the national government and the election of the President. Topical outlines, references, and several cartoons furnish illustrative materials. A two-page bibliography is appended.

The Third General Meeting of the World Federation of Education Association will be held in Toronto, Canada, August 7-12, 1927. One of the twenty-seven proposed discussion groups is to consider the teaching of history. About 5,000 persons are expected to attend the meeting, and adequate accommodations are assured. Persons interested in securing accommodations may write Dr. Charles Frazer, 10 Sylvan Avenue, Toronto, Canada, Secretary of Local Committee. Communications concerning the program should be sent to Dr. Charles H. Williams, 101 Jesse Hall, Columbia, Mo.

Teachers of history who are planning a European tour for the summer will be interested in the Locarno International Conference on New Education (The Fourth International Conference of the New Education Fellowship), at Locarno, Switzerland, August 3-15, 1927. One study group is proposed for the discussion of "History Teaching From the International Standpoint." Group tours have been arranged for July and August by the Intercontinental Bureau for Educational Travel. For information and announcements, write Miss Clare Soper, New Education Fellowship, 11 Travistock Square, London, W. C. 1, England.

The Seventh Annual Conference of the Teachers of History and the Social Studies in the Schools and Colleges of Iowa was held at the University of Iowa, Iowa City, Friday and Saturday, February 4-5, 1927. The Friday morning session included: (1) an address by Walter A. Jessup, President of the University; (2) "The Place of Sociology and Economics in the High School Curriculum," by Clyde W. Hart, University of Iowa; (3) "Salvaging Senior High School Civics," by Rollo M. Tryon, University of Chicago; and (4) "Vitalizing the Teaching of the Social Studies," by W. G. Kimmel, University of Chicago. The Friday afternoon session included the following papers: (1) "Making History Understood," by Ernest Horne, University of Iowa; (2) "How Should High School History Courses Be Organized for Teaching Purposes?" by Mr. Tryon, and (3) "Kinds of Research Needed in the Solu-

tion of the Social Studies Problem," by A. C. Krey, University of Minnesota. Professor A. C. McLaughlin, University of Chicago, delivered an address, "The Significance of the American Revolution," at the Friday evening session. The Saturday morning session included "History and History Teaching," by Professor McLaughlin, and (2) "What are the True Tests of History Teaching?" by Guy Stanton Ford, University of Minnesota.

The Session was well attended, the discussions following the papers were brief, but direct, in character and there seemed to be considerable agreement on the part of the speakers with respect to certain principles in the teaching of the social studies. The general point of view seemed to be that of concentration on essential materials for instruction purposes, the need for organization of subject-matter, and a tendency to critically evaluate many of the newer developments in courses of study and methods in the social studies.

Seventh Annual Meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies

The Seventh Annual Meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies was held in Dallas, Texas, on February 26, 1927.

Miss Edna H. Stone, of University High School, Oakland, California, discussed the Laboratory method of teaching history and presented a large amount of illustrative material. Professor Edgar Dawson, of Hunter College, presented a paper in which was offered a restatement of the basic objectives of the social studies. At a luncheon round-table nearly a hundred teachers and administrators exchanged views on the condition of the social studies in the districts represented, President Bessie L. Pierce, of Iowa State University, presiding.

In the afternoon Miss Elizabeth Morey, of the San Antonio High School, analyzed the problem of questioning in class on the social studies and offered an argument for allowing pupils to take part in grading the value of the work of the fellow-pupils. Miss Julie Koch, of Roosevelt High School, St. Louis, spoke on the dilemma presented by the fact that the teacher of social studies must have a preparation which cannot possibly be crowded into the time usually provided in a college course. Her solution was a large amount of supplementary reading after the teacher begins to teach.

Professor R. H. Shryock, of Duke University; Mr. DeWitt S. Morgan, of Technical High School, Indianapolis, and other committee chairmen presented reports that represented the constructive work being done during the past year by the Council.

The following officers were elected:

President, J. Montgomery Gambrill, of Teachers' College, Columbia University; Vice-President, Edna H. Stone, University High School, Oakland, California; Secretary-Treasurer, Edgar Dawson, Hunter College; Corresponding Secretary, Mary V. Carney, Central High School, St. Paul.

The constitution of the National Council was amended to provide that the annual meeting take place with the July Convention of the National Education Association, of which the National Council is a department, instead of with the February Convention of the Department of Superintendence. This will extend the present administrative year to July of 1928.

All of the meetings were held in the Dallas Y. W. C. A. Building. The local committee, headed by Superintendent L. V. Stockard, Miss Zoe McEvoy, and Mr. De Laney, of the Dallas School System, placed the National Council under obligation to them for the exceedingly efficient and generous preparation for the meeting.

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Book Reviews

EDITED BY PROFESSOR HARRY J. CARMAN, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

History and the Other Social Studies in the Junior High School. By Daniel C. Knowlton. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1926. iv, 210 pp.

In this age of rapid change and experiment a number of almost revolutionary modifications have been made in the field of education, extending all the way from the kindergarten to the university. Of these, perhaps none has aroused greater interest than the junior high school and its curriculum. What should be its place in the educational hierarchy and what should be the scope and nature of the subject-matter presented? The volume under review deals with one phase of this many-sided problem, namely, the place and presentation of history and the other social studies.

The author of this volume, who is at present professor of visual instruction at Yale University, needs no introduction to the American teaching guild, he having been connected for many years with the department of history and civics in the Lincoln School of Teachers' College, Columbia University. Indeed, the eight chapters of this book are, as he says in his prefatory note, merely a record of some of his classroom experiences and interpretations drawn therefrom. In the first, entitled, "Building a Course in the Social Studies for the Junior High School," he points out the desirability of having a unit course instead of the old, independent pigeon-holed courses in history, geography, and civics and the various ways in which such a course may be organized and taught. In this chapter he also summarizes the content of such a unified course by grades. Chapter II, "History in Its Relation to the Junior High School: Problem of Selecting and Organizing Material," is introduced by two pertinent questions: (1) What is the junior high school? (2) What is history? These are in turn followed by a discussion of the material that should go into the junior high school history. Here Professor Knowlton maintains that its content "will consist primarily of a series of pictures, each carefully pieced together like a mosaic" (p. 28). In other words, he thinks the pupil should and can best represent his notion of things historical graphically. Chapter III, "Tools and Workroom in History," the author treats in considerable detail the nature of the syllabus and textbook, map equipment, picture material, and the workroom. Chapter IV, "Setting the Problem in History: Lesson Planning and Problem Solving," discusses the much talked-of project and problem method of presentation and is admirably illustrated by concrete problem types. Chapter V, "The Use of the Concrete: Time Charts, Maps, Pictures, Cartoons, Graphs, Dramatization," which contains a wealth of most helpful suggestions, is in a sense a miniature reproduction of Professor Knowlton's *Making History Graphic*. Chapter VI, "The Class Session," gives a number of valuable suggestions for supplanting the old cut-and-dried recitation with something that is more stimulating and vital. In Chapter VII, "Outcome and Tests of Progress," Professor Knowlton raises the important question of how the teacher may best measure the student's work. At the outset he admits the desirability of frequently testing and the usefulness of the so-called "new tests." But he believes that these should be supplemented by the picture test, to which he devotes the greater part of the chapter. The title of the last chapter, "The Geography and Civics Elements in the Junior High School," is self-explanatory.

Inasmuch as Professor Knowlton rightly holds that the teacher is, in last analysis, the key to the success of any social science course, he concludes the volume with an epilogue, "The Teacher," in which he briefly dictates what might well constitute proper subject-matter requirements for junior high school work, teacher-training, and the teacher's library.

Rarely perhaps should superlatives be used by a reviewer, but this is an excellent book because it is thought-provoking and helpful. Every teacher of history and the social sciences as well as every school administrator should read and re-read its pages. It is a real contribution, based on practice rather than theory.

C.

William Henry Harrison. By Dorothy Burne Goebel. (Indiana Historical Collections, Vol. XIV.) Indianapolis, 1926. \$1.50. xii, 456 pp.

Hero worship is a characteristic of adolescence—not only of individuals but of nations. In the early decades of the last century the United States was very young, and its youth was apparent in a certain naïveté which was expressed in many ways. One of the most curious was the fiction of the greatness of General William Henry Harrison. The opponents of Andrew Jackson had sought by appeals to reason and self-interest to educate the people in regard to the benefits of the American system and the desirability of having the destiny of the country in the hands of National Republicans or Whigs, but to no avail. The people would have their hero, and voted for "Old Hickory." So a counter-hero must be provided; the search resulted in the resurrection of an old friend of Clay's—an inveterate politician and an importunate office seeker, General William Henry Harrison. A kindly, genial, oratorical politician of many experiences, with proper publicity, he could be made available. Thereupon the "Hero of Tippecanoe" entered the lists to overwhelm the chosen successor of the "Hero of New Orleans." The result was a man of straw set before the people, and sung and drunk into office—"Tippecanoe and Tyler, too," in 1840.

Few men have had more varied careers than William Henry Harrison, and it is welcome news to know that at length this life has been unravelled and interpreted by a careful and unprejudiced scholar. Harrison was never permitted to enjoy the fruits of his very limited successes in any of his manifold adventures without bitter controversy; facile in making friends, he had also talent for acquiring enemies, hence a voluminous controversial literature. Thus to some a saint and others a vile sinner, a careful and accurate analysis of his personality and his career has been most difficult, but it has been well done. Dr. Dorothy Burne Goebel, after an extended search through material involving topics geographically scattered from Canada to Colombia, has unravelled the story of his varied adventures. In Virginia and the Northwest, through the Indian Wars and the War of 1812, as Governor, Congressman, Senator, Ohio legislator, Minister to Colombia, national candidate, and President, we follow the man, pleasant and amiable, but with little moral courage, little originality, ever calculating, trimming his sails to catch the latest breeze—a typical adventurer of the period manufactured for political purposes into a hero—and hugely enjoying it with an unquenchable optimism undimmed by repeated disaster. The man and his activity are set forth, minutely annotated, carefully weighed, and delicately found wanting. The popular taste of the day and the nature of our early politics has received real illumination through the work of Dr. Goebel, and our understanding of this fascinating period is much increased thereby.

ROY F. NICHOLS.

University of Pennsylvania.

The Work of the College Entrance Examination Board: 1901-1925. Ginn and Company, Boston, 1926. 300 pp.

In the United States education has been free from any centralized governmental or religious control. Therefore,

since of all arts, education is the most uncertain of its purpose and least sure of its technique, variety and experimentation have flourished. Diversity of subject-matter, difference of method, and variation of standard mark each institutional unit of the system. Hence may derive some improvement by selection, but the gaps between species often widen to a stretch which does not conduce to the easy progress of the individual student from school to school. By the time of the early nineties the college had disjointed itself from the secondary school, carrying over to its side two years of work in introductory training, thus creating an artificial break at a point where a smoothly continuous development was a necessity for the student. This, together with the rapid introduction of new subjects, and the waning of the classic tradition, left the secondary school bewildered as to what the college expected of incoming students, and the colleges perplexed as to what they should ask. A solution by governmental ukase fortunately could not be. Solution through private initiative and enterprise forced itself. So, under the championship of Dr. Eliot, of Harvard, and Dr. Butler, of Columbia, the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Middle States and Maryland instituted The College Entrance Examination Board, which held its first examinations in June, 1901, with 973 candidates taking 7,889 examinations. The same Board in 1925 had 19,775 candidates take 72,815 examinations. Such a growth amply illustrates the justification of issuing an anniversary volume.

The book itself might have been of more interest to persons not directly associated with the Board if it had taken the form of a coherent account of the methods and problems of such an outstanding example of co-operative effort, rather than presenting as it does a loosely related collection of essays, after-dinner speeches, and abbreviated reports. But, at that, one interested in the problem of administration versus education will find here some interesting discussion and a number of suggested questions. The enrollment of 3,750,000 students in our high schools and preparatory schools has rendered futile the a priori educational solution, the passing of which leaves the arm-chair comfortless, and might find its epitaph at the bottom of page 15 of this volume: "In the welter of certificates, intelligence tests, and electives a good, honest examination shines like a star of the first magnitude." So many things which ought to work, and used to work, on a moderate scale are being numerically magnified to imperfection.

Is our youth deficient in power of expression? Will training in passing examinations develop a "power of self-expression?" Should examinations be considered direct instruments of education? Or are they merely mechanical necessities for sorting out the individuals to be passed to the next grade? Do we examine for any other reason than creating an artificial necessity of learning where no natural necessity exists? Are the real objectives of education subject to direct measurement? When one proves that a student can translate French, does it show that he has learned French? Fortunately examinations may be conducted with success without answering such questions. But the report on the Scholastic Aptitude Test which occupies twenty pages of the book at the same time sanely shows the possibility of considering such questions empirically, and indicates the important part the Board may play in such studies without departing from the conservatism which is necessary for administrative stability.

HAROLD K. CHADWICK.

Columbia University.

The Dictionary of Canadian Biography. Compiled by W. S. Wallace. Macmillan, Toronto, 1926. v, 429 pp. \$12.50.

Canada, like the United States, has suffered much from dictionaries of biography which were testimony to the shrewdness of their promoters and the vanity of their subjects rather than scholarly historiography. None was satisfactory, and the student was faced by contradictions

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J. A. C. CHANDLER, President

1927 Summer Session

First term: June 13-July 23 Second term: July 23-Aug. 27

Courses leading to A.B., B.S., and A.M. degrees. The College, situated as it is in Williamsburg, the colonial capital of Virginia, should appeal to students of history. It is the Alma Mater of Jefferson, Monroe, Marshall, Tyler, Edmund and Peyton Randolph, Scott, Crittenden, and others of national fame. Associated with Williamsburg are memories of the royal governors, of Washington, Patrick Henry, John Randolph, Cornwallis, LaFayette, McClelland, and others. It is also the birthplace of the Phi Beta Kappa Fraternity which is this year celebrating its One Hundred and Fiftieth anniversary.

Situated on the historic peninsula between the York and the James Rivers, in close proximity to the ancient shrines of Jamestown and Yorktown, Richmond and Fortress Monroe may be reached by auto in one hour, and Washington by boat in one night. By special arrangement through the History Department excursions will be made to Westover, Shirley, and Brandon, historic homes on the James River.

Address inquiries to K. J. HOKE, Director

and fables. He usually turned to the index volume of "Canada and Its Provinces" or wrote to the Bureau of Information of the Public Archives at Ottawa. The Librarian of the University of Toronto has now performed a very great service in producing this volume "resembling in a faint and humble way the great *English Dictionary of National Biography*." In it no living person is included, the accounts are bald, and in that sense impartial, and to each is appended its printed source material. Original research has been carried out where disagreement as to facts existed, and where error was suspected. A special effort has been made to make the dictionary serviceable as an author catalogue.

One cannot, of course, review the material of two thousand biographies. It has not yet unexpectedly failed me in either haphazard or specific reference, and I have found only one error. Certainly omissions and errors will be found to exist as the book is used, and it is to be hoped that the *Canadian Historical Review* will follow the example set by *History* in publishing corrections as they are submitted by students. No doubt an arrangement has been made for the appearance of periodic supplements. As it stands now, the *Dictionary* is a necessary part of any good reference library. For students of history its great value lies, not so much in the biographies themselves (although they are sufficient for ordinary purposes), as in the guidance their appendices give to further material. In them it is most gratifying to find almost constant reference to such products of scholarly research as the publications and transactions of learned societies and of the Dominion Archives, the *Canadian Historical Review*, and *Le Bulletin des Recherches Historiques*. Too often there has been no way, except the most laborious, to get at such sound information.

In addition to being a work of the highest credit to Mr. Wallace, the *Dictionary* is, as he says, a compilation, and as such it is an indication of the spade-work which has been and is being done in Canadian History. The univer-

sities, the libraries, the learned societies, and most notably the Public Archives at Ottawa and elsewhere, have made the way of the student much easier than might be expected. This volume, which is the product of broad co-operation, might well be an encouragement to the recently initiated scheme of collaboration in historical research among the Canadian universities.

BARTLET BRENNER.

Columbia University.

Benjamin Franklin, The First Civilized American. By Phillips Russell. Brentano's, New York, 1926. 332 pp.

There are few urges more insistent than that to establish priority—be it in politics, mechanics or a dozen other fields of activity. Petrarch has been called the "First modern man" for so long historians have come to believe it, although not without some vigorous dissent, notably by Thorndike. And now Americans are told their "first civilized" figure was Benjamin Franklin. He is called so, "Because at an American period eminent for narrowness, superstition, and bleak beliefs he was mirthful, generous, open-minded, learned, tolerant, and humor-loving," a statement which indicates Russell's essential weakness.

The author has evidently little or no understanding of the period in which Franklin lived and the colonists whom he stimulated or who furnished him stimuli in return. Franklin was merely the best rounded personality among a number of individuals with similar tastes and accomplishments. The leading cities along the Atlantic seaboard were recognizable reproductions of western European cities of the eighteenth century. They had their jealous aristocracies, their rumblings of a democratic spirit, and their influential professional classes, especially the lawyers. Franklin, in a sense, was the intellectual clearing-house for the more advanced ideas expressed by fellow Americans. There were many infected with the virus of deism. The vogue of electrical experimentation was wide-spread: every colonial with any pretensions to "philosophie" made experiments. Franklin furnished some of the apparatus with which others might conduct experiments. He shared his thoughts on many subjects with Colden, an influential New Yorker, James Bowdoin, and Prof. John Winthrop, of Harvard. In the process Franklin's ideas were clarified as were those of his correspondents, none of whom, if I remember rightly, are mentioned in this latest biography.

Surely Franklin was not one to keep a joke to himself, and it does seem a horrible torture to imagine him living so many years with an unappreciative audience. But, of course, colonial Americans could laugh, even in New England, news as it may be to some. All of the seaboard cities had their social clubs, where surprising amounts of various liquids were consumed and where reigned a conviviality unsurpassed in the most famous London clubs. Franklin mingled with these groups and kept the edge of his humor keen. Franklin was of his time, but what marks him as exceptional, he also transcended it.

The great emphasis placed upon the "Autobiography" has undoubtedly served to hide from the author Franklin's real place in the American scene. The perspective that might have been gained by a study of the letters he sent and those he received, as well as a greater acquaintance with contemporary social conditions, has been obscured by this dependence on the "Memoir." Too frequently Russell stresses the narrowness of his subject's contemporaries to suggest by contrast Franklin's toleration and wisdom, e. g., Cotton Mather (p. 11), and Thomas Hutchinson (p. 228). Yet Mather, against all the physicians of Boston save one, urged the introduction of inoculation against smallpox. Franklin in after years wrote in favor of this treatment, but not until a little son, who had not been inoculated, had died. Hutchinson, if only because of his "History of Massachusetts Bay," deserves more generous treatment.

Reckless statements abound. Is it not stretching the facts to pronounce Andrew Bradford, the printer, illiterate (p. 50)? To say that the "real cause of the Revolutionary War" was "the fear in England that America (would) establish her own factories and set up her own industries" (210)?

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Perhaps I am too critical. Certainly, if one measures the stage of civilization a man attains by the frequency and intensity of his devotion to women, Franklin set a high standard. But I dare say the ladies themselves would include more than that as a measure of civilization. What was a part of his life, albeit, a very important part, Russell has made almost his whole life. Just as Franklin belongs to his times, so Russell belongs to this literary age, but I fear he has not transcended it.

MICHAEL KRAUS.

The College of the City of New York.

Greek Papyri in the Library of Cornell University. Edited with Translations and Notes by William Linn Westermann and Casper J. Kraemer, Jr. With Nineteen Plates. xx, 287 pp. Columbia University Press, N. Y., 1926. \$10.00.

The shift of emphasis from political and dynastic to social and economic history is paralleled by the growing interest in Greek papyri. While the papyri have made many additions to extant Greek literature, the great majority of them are "non-literary," consisting of legal documents, personal letters, tax registers, accounts, school exercises, in fact, every kind of document that was produced in Egypt under Greek and Roman rule. Thus they offer by far the best means of gaining an insight into the actual life of the mixed population of the Egypt of that period. They are particularly illuminating on the economic side, giving as they do a mass of detailed information about wages, prices, business methods, taxation, etc.

Though a number of American universities own respectable collections of papyri, and the publication of individual papyri by American scholars has not been infrequent, this volume enjoys the distinction of being the first entirely devoted to Greek papyri to be published in the United States. Its appearance can therefore be called an epoch-making event in the annals of American research in the ancient field. It is to be hoped that the volumes which

follow will not fall below the very high standard set by Professors Westermann and Kraemer.

"P. Cornell I" contains 5 Ptolemaic papyri and 50 of the Roman period, with complete but concise introductions and commentary, and, in most cases, English translations. The first two, or perhaps three, of the Ptolemaic documents are specimens of the famous "Zenon papyri," the records of a great Egyptian estate of the third century B. C., which are now so widely scattered among the collections. The documents of the Roman period are miscellaneous in character, including contracts, receipts, declarations to officials, official and private accounts and letters. The very interesting "Record of Lamp Oil" (No. 1) and "Contract with Castanet Dancers" (No. 9) have been previously published by Professor Westermann, but appear here with improved readings and interpretations. The longest document in the volume is a register of payments of the rather mysterious tax called *syntaximon* (No. 21). An interesting point in this register is that the annual total for the individual taxpayer is 44 drachmas 5 chalkoi. In regard to this point the editors say (p. 154): "The assumption which Preisigke made in *Archiv* IV 103-105 that the payments of 44½ dr. 2 chal. found in *P. Fay.* 153 were for the poll-tax he abandoned subsequently in *Griechen* 258 note 6. They are for the *syntaximon*, as here. The fees (*prosdia-graphomena*) are payable once—the amount (5 chal.) is markedly smaller than that of *P. Fay.* 153 (3 ob. 2 chal.)." But it seems clear, as suggested by P. M. Meyer (*P. Giessen* I, III, p. 86), that the sign which Preisigke interpreted as ½ drachma in his republication of *P. Fay.* 153 actually signifies ½ obol. If so, the total annual payment in *P. Fay.* 153 is not 44½ dr. 2 chal., but 44 dr. 6 chal. This agrees exactly with the total shown in a number of extant receipts for *syntaximon* (see Meyer, l. c.), dating from 10/11 A. D. to 174 A. D. Two published documents only, *P. Giessen* I, No. 94 (66-7 A. D.), and now *P. Cornell* I, No. 21 (25 A. D.), record total payments of 44 dr. 5 chal. As Meyer (l. c.) appears to be obviously wrong in his statement

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that *B. G. U.* 791 and 881 record a larger total amount for this tax than those found in the documents mentioned above, our published evidence for the *syntarimon* seems to show a variation of only one chalkus in the annual total, including fees.

For the sake of economy the Cornell volume has been produced by photographing typewritten pages, a method which, due to remarkable accuracy in the typing and the skilful use of different "fonts," has served in this case as an excellent substitute for printing. Both editors and publishers are to be congratulated on the skill and care which have made possible the use of this less costly method of reproduction without detracting from the convenience or good appearance of the volume.

Columbia University.

CLINTON W. KEYES.

A History of American Foreign Policy. By John Holladay Latané. Doubleday, Page and Co., 1927. xiv, 725 pp. \$4.00.

Diplomatic Episodes. By William Carey Morey. Longmans, Green and Co., New York, 1926. xvii, 295 pp.

This latest book by Professor Latané is an impressive-looking volume. There are thirty chapters, divided into six nearly equal parts. There is no preface. The "Introduction" deals with "Notes on Sources" and is very helpful to students who desire to penetrate further into the maze of diplomatic facts. The dedication of the book is unique. The fact that there are no maps in the work will appear to many, particularly students, an irreparable loss. Throughout the volume are to be found many quotations. Marginal headings are used and the facts are well documented in footnotes. Here, too, however, one feels the absence of citations to pertinent monographic materials, with which the author does not in all cases show himself to be familiar. The index (pages 709-725) is scant and unsatisfactory.

To a teacher of American diplomacy this book seems stereotyped and is somewhat disappointing. For the most part the treatment is orthodox and the main currents have been well treated. But one looks in vain for many of the by-paths of diplomacy which, wandering off in all directions, create a fascinating picture and give the subject its appeal. To cite only a few cases in point: During the period of the revolutions for independence in Latin-America (1808-1824) much sympathy was expressed for, and actual aid was given to, our neighbors to the south, both by land and sea. This activity influenced to a large extent the formulation of neutrality legislation by the United States, yet nothing whatever is said of this activity, and "piracy" is not even mentioned in the index. Again, while "Manifest Destiny" sentiment is discussed briefly—though it is not mentioned in the index—no attempt has been made to trace its rise and decline from about 1846 to 1871. The treatment of the Pan-American conferences, which Secretary Knox in 1910 asserted ranked foremost in our diplomacy, have been very hastily sketched, thus neglecting a certain emphasis due them. On page 660 it is erroneously asserted that the beginnings of the Pan-American movement dates from the Congress of Panama and Bolivar, when in reality it antedates that period by a generation. The whole discussion of Pan-Americanism is found in chapter twenty-nine, entitled, "Latin-America and the World War." Coming from a writer so much interested in Latin-America's relations with the United States, these conditions are surprising.

But in spite of all criticisms, the reviewer feels that he can do no better than to recommend the volume as a college text, with the belief that the work is very "teachable," and that both teachers and students will be well repaid by using it.

Professor Morey's book consists of "a review of certain historical incidents bearing upon international relations and diplomacy." The jacket of the volume gives this prospectus: "Diplomacy, the author points out, 'is a comparatively new thing in the world, dating only from the seventeenth century.' What has it done for mankind and what

can it do? These questions are not answered directly in Dr. Morey's book, but well-known episodes in world diplomacy are discussed 'to point out the salient points at issue in each controversy, to show the mode in which diplomatic methods may be used in the interests of peace, and to suggest the way in which international diplomacy has extended to the development of certain phases of international law.' The cases taken up are either world famous or prominent in American history and interest, and they range from our first diplomatic controversy, leading to the Jay treaty, to the sale of munitions of war by neutrals."

The chapters, ten in number, which are really essays, average somewhat over twenty pages each and are subdivided topically. They bear the following headings: "Our first diplomatic controversy: a prelude to the Jay treaty," "Federalism and international liability: the case of the *Caroline*," "American policy as to the law of recognition: apropos of the Cuban revolt," "Diplomacy of European powers in the Far East; the threatened partition of China," "The diplomatic problem regarding the Suez canal: its international status," "International right of way, with reference to the opening of the Panama canal," "The sale of munitions of war in its relation to the law of neutrality," "British diplomacy and British colonial reform: Canada, Australia, and South Africa," "The growth of the concert of Europe; the international policy of intervention," "Historical development of peace: various methods of approach to the world problem."

In the introduction to the book Dr. David Jayne Hill writes that the materials for the volume had been collected for the purpose of publication by the author, but that his death prevented the earlier printing of them. Dr. Morey considered these topics of importance to men of culture, and they were presented to his classes at the University of Rochester as supplementary information, rather than as parts of his general courses.

The book can well be recommended to college students of diplomacy, for, unlike many volumes in this field, the language is clear, simple, and non-technical. However, more value would be derived from the work had an index been added, and if, instead of bracketed references, copious footnotes had been made.

A. CURTIS WILGUS.

University of South Carolina.

Life and Letters of John Muir. By William Frederic Badé. Two vols., 399 pp. and 454 pp. Houghton, Mifflin Co., Boston, 1924. \$7.50.

John Muir was a very rare spirit, whose remarkable career is full of interest for the naturalist, the conservationist, the student of social history, and the lover of *belles lettres*. Coming to America at the age of eleven, he was one of seven children whose Calvinist father at the age of 45 left a prosperous business in Scotland for life on a Wisconsin farm. A bitter childhood of coercion in a Scottish school was followed in the New World by a dozen years of grinding toil and still more severe travail of spirit under the hard discipline and well-meaning persecution of a Puritan father of typical narrowness and bigotry. In spite of it all John retained his fineness of soul and eagerness for learning, managing at last to have four years of study at the University of Wisconsin. Then followed the life-time and world-wide wanderings to which an insatiable curiosity and a deep passion for wild nature unceasingly drove him. First came two years in Canada, then "A Thousand-Mile Walk to the Gulf," prolonged by ship to Cuba, and thence by a small fruit schooner to New York, from which he proceeded by way of Panama to San Francisco. Thereafter his home, so far as he had one, remained in the western United States, more particularly in the Sierras, most of all in the Yosemite, and, though he presently married and had children, the call of the wilderness, the lure of huge mountains and giant forests made him often a pilgrim and a hermit. He lived to visit Alaska and the Arctic, Russia, Siberia, Manchuria, India, Australia, New Zealand, South America, and Africa.

Muir was an eager naturalist, a student of botany,

zoology, and geology, an untiring explorer whom no dangers and difficulties could discourage. His love for wild nature included animals, even the most savage. Muir Glacier, one of the largest in Alaska, was discovered by him and named for him; Muir Woods in central California is another memorial. He long anticipated the conservation movement in his persistent and successful advocacy of forest preserves and national parks. At the time of his graduation from college he was deeply interested in medicine and expected to become a physician. His mechanical and inventive skill impressed all who knew him. Among all his varied interests, however, the deepest and strongest was his passionate love of Nature. There was fire and rapture in it, a rare poetic feeling; yet his ecstasy was without admixture of sentimentality, and gleams of dry humor frequently enliven his beautifully-written narrative and description. The man who at the height of a wild wind-storm climbed to the upper limbs of a hundred-foot spruce, that he might more fully share the glorious and dangerous motion that rocked the forest, was nevertheless a spirit unflinching in restraint and poise. Among all our writers on Nature, though we include Burroughs and Mills and Beebe, he stands pre-eminent for depth of feeling and beauty of style.

In the present volumes the biographer and editor has been wise enough to let Muir himself tell most of the story through his letters, Mr. Badé supplying the necessary information to connect and explain them. These letters have a special charm, possessing much of the spontaneity for which his conversation was famous, but sometimes missing from his formal writings, which, as a friend once remarked, were sometimes polished "until an ordinary man slips on

them." They are vividly alive and reveal his interests and feelings with even more clarity than his books. These two volumes make a thrilling epic of a great poet and naturalist.

J. M. GAMBRILL.

Teachers' College, Columbia University.

Book Notes

In August, 1915, the first of what are known as the "Unity History Schools" was held at Woodbrooke, the social and educational settlement of the English Society of Friends. Supported and attended by those who are interested in looking at life from an international rather than a national viewpoint, these schools have selected for study and discussion subjects which reach beyond mere national boundaries. The various subjects discussed from year to year have in turn formed the basis for the Unity Series of Essays arranged and edited by F. S. Marvin. Up to 1925 seven volumes of the series had been published. The seventh one, *England and the World* (Oxford University Press, London, 1925. 268 pp.), consists of twelve essays, each by a reputable scholar, and stresses the history of England from a world point of view. Some notion of the scope and nature of the volume may be obtained by citing the title and author of each essay: The First Civilization of England, by W. J. Perry; Britain and the Roman Empire, by R. G. Collingwood; The Middle Ages, by A. J. Carlyle; The Sixteenth Century, by A. J. Grant; The Seventeenth Century, by A. J. Grant; The Eighteenth Century, by G. P. Gooch; The Nineteenth Century, by J. P. Gooch; England and the Building of the New World, by L. M. Peuson; England in the East, by H. Dodwell; Eng-

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For the Announcement of the Summer Session of 1927, Address

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land and the Backward Races, by F. S. Marvin; England and the League of Nations, by F. S. Marvin; The Child's Approach to Internationalism, by F. J. Gould. Each essay, which is followed by a brief bibliography, is not only interesting and informing, but exceedingly thought-provoking. The last five are especially deserving of wide and careful reading.

A second edition, revised and enlarged, of Edward Cressy's *Discoveries and Inventions of the Twentieth Century*, has been published. This work appeared a few years ago as a sequel to Robert Routledge's *Discoveries and Inventions of the Nineteenth Century*. In the new edition the old chapters have been corrected and revised and new ones have been added. A special point is made of a chapter on the achievements of modern chemistry, with particular reference to its relation to physics and biology. The chapter on ships of war and their weapons has been omitted on the ground that not enough was known about the numerous and radical changes to justify a rewritten chapter. Fortunately, there has been included a chapter on modern ships, in which the gyro-compass is described, but, for some reason, the marvelous gyro-pilot is entirely ignored. The book is profusely illustrated with nearly 350 diagrams and half-tone illustrations and there is an index (458 pp., E. P. Dutton and Company, New York, 1924. \$5.00).

S. E. Morison has brought together a unique collection of primary materials in *Sources and Documents Illustrating the American Revolution, 1764-1788, and the Formation of the Federal Constitution*. In addition to the essential and familiar political documents there are extracts from letters, debates, pamphlets, frontier petitions, papers on Indian relations, resolutions, royal instructions, etc. Most of the documents are not available in any similar manual and four of them are taken from manuscript sources. Diplomatic and military papers are omitted, as well as economic

documents, the latter for the reason that they are readily available in the collections of Callendar and Bogart and Thompson. American conditions and problems, rather than the imperial aspects, are given the chief attention. There is an excellent introduction discussing the documents and analyzing the causes of the Revolution and the making of state and Federal constitutions. It is deplorable that no index was included (Oxford University Press, New York. 367 pp. \$3.00).

A valuable addition to the series of documents and readings published by the University of Chicago Press is *Immigration: Select Documents and Case Records*, edited by Edith Abbott, Dean of the Graduate School of Social Service Administration, University of Chicago. (809 pp. \$4.00.) Extracts are taken from laws and reports of organizations and individuals, but the most interesting and distinctive feature is the set of case records. Typical documents of efforts to regulate steerage conditions from 1751-1882 throw much light on the early emigrant ships, while reports from the more recent commissions and investigations show what the journey was like during the more recent period. A large proportion of the documents are taken from material now out of print. Where controversial questions are involved, material is given on both sides. Unfortunately, nothing is included about Asiatic immigration, on the theory that no chance should be taken of confusing the problems of Asiatic and European immigration. Aside from this limitation, the book is a comprehensive collection and is very useful for teachers of American social history or of the new-type civics courses. A detailed table of contents and a subject index add very much to the usefulness of the volume.

Six volumes of the Modern Readers' Series, edited by Professor Ashley H. Thorndike and published by the Macmillan Company, have appeared during the past year. They

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are *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, by Harriet Beecher Stowe, with an introduction by Francis Pendleton Gaines (xiv, 432 pp.); *A Tale of Two Cities*, by Charles Dickens, with an introduction by Walter C. Phillips (xxv, 459 pp.); *The Heart of Midlothian*, by Sir Walter Scott, with an introduction by Archibald Patterson (xxxi, 497 pp.); *The Pathfinder*, by J. Fenimore Cooper, with an introduction by Russell A. Sharp (xv, 447 pp.); *The Scottish Chiefs*, by Jane Porter, with an introduction by Robert M. Smith (xxi, 572 pp.); *The Call of the Wild and Other Stories*, by Jack London, with an introduction by Frank Luther Mott (xxxv, 268 pp.). These volumes form a valuable addition to the series which will include a wide range of English and American literature. Carefully edited and attractively printed and bound, each volume of the series ought to have an especial appeal to the student of history as well as the general reader.

No student of frontier history can afford to neglect Bruce E. Mahan's *Old Fort Crawford and the Frontier* (The State Historical Society of Iowa, Iowa City, 1926. xv, 349 pp.). Based in large measure on primary sources, this volume gives an admirable account not only of one of those early western military posts which played such an important rôle in the advance of civilization westward, but of the frontier itself. Mr. Mahan writes in interesting fashion and the dozen or more illustrations add to the value of the book. Chapter XII, "The Lure of Furs and Lead," and Chapter XV, "Glimpses of Garrison Life," should prove especially worth while to anyone interested in social and economic history. The State Historical Society of Iowa is to be congratulated, for this volume is well-nigh perfect from a mechanical and artistic point of view.

The Beginnings of Agriculture in America, by Lyman Carrier, is a scholarly account, decidedly the most useful story of colonial agriculture available. Numerous extracts from contemporary documents make it in part a source book. There are a few pictures, a bibliography of thirty-five titles, and an index (McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York. 323 pp. \$3.00).

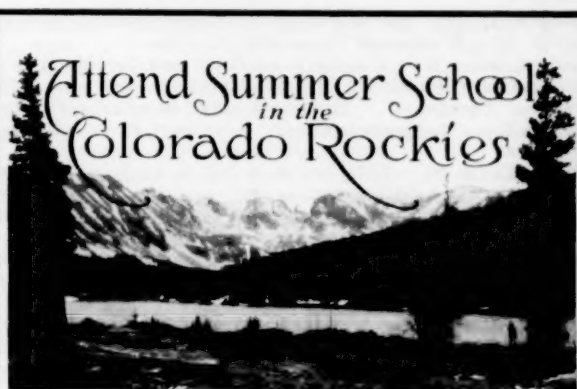
The Amateur Photographer's Handbook, by A. Frederick Collins, is so comprehensive and up to date that a professional photographer might read it with profit, yet so simple and practical that the amateur, for whom it is intended, can readily understand and use it. All the routine procedures are covered, and, in addition, motion pictures, color photography, X-ray pictures, and trick pictures. Both theory and practice are discussed. Numerous diagrams and illustrations supplement the text and an index makes the volume convenient for ready reference (T. Y. Crowell and Company, New York, 1925. 362 pp. \$2.50).

Books on History and Government Published in the United States from January 29 to February 26, 1927

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH.D.

AMERICAN HISTORY

- Bowen, Clarence W. *The history of Woodstock, Connecticut*. Norwood, Mass.: Plimpton Press. 691 pp. (10 p. bibl.). \$15.00.
- Chandler, Geo., and Cheryn, John L. *Iowa and the nation [history and civics]*. Chicago: A. Flanagan. 565 pp. 75c.
- Denis, Alberta J. *Spanish Alta California*. N. Y.: Macmillan. 547 pp. \$3.50.
- Dickson, Marguerite S. *American history for Grammar Schools* (revised edition). N. Y.: Macmillan. 364 pp. \$1.32.
- Dondore, Dorothy A. *The prairie and the making of middle America*. Cedar Rapids, Ia.: Torch Press. 483 pp. (16 p. bibl.). \$4.50.



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- Hamlin, C. H. The war myth in United States History. N. Y.: Vanguard Press. 93 pp. 50c.
 Latané, John H. A history of American foreign policy. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday Page. 739 pp. \$4.00.
 Preston, Thomas W. Historical sketches of the Holston Valleys. Kingsport, Tenn.: Kingsport Press. 203 pp. \$1.00.
 Sears, Louis M. Jefferson and the embargo. Durham, N. C.: Duke Univ. Press. 349 pp. (4 p. bibl.). \$4.00.
 Starr, Edward C. A history of Cornwall, Connecticut. Cornwall, Conn.: [Author.] 547 pp. \$10.00.
 Thompson, Henry T. Ousting the carpet-bagger from South Carolina. Columbia, S. C.: R. L. Bryan Co. 191 pp. \$1.50.
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ANCIENT HISTORY

- Diehl, Charles. Byzantine portraits [Biographies of rulers of the Eastern Empire]. N. Y.: Knopf. 349 pp. \$5.00.
 Eusebius of Caesarea. The ecclesiastical history (Loeb Classical Library). Vol. I. N. Y.: Putnam. 580 pp. \$2.50.
 Frank, Tenney. An economic history of Rome (2d rev. edition). Balto.: Johns Hopkins Press. 519 pp. \$3.00.
 Jardé, Auguste F. V. The formation of the Greek people. N. Y.: Knopf. 375 pp. (6 p. bibl.). \$6.00.
 Livy (Titus Livius). Livy. Vol. 4. Books VIII-X (Loeb Classical Library). N. Y.: Putnam. 579 pp. \$2.50.

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- Cole, George D. H. A short history of the British working class movement. N. Y.: Macmillan. 211 pp. \$4.50.
 Ditchfield, Peter H. The story of the city companies [London]. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 333 pp. \$5.00.
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- Edwards, William. Notes on European history. Vol. III (1715-1815). N. Y.: Putnam. 588 pp. \$4.50.
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BIOGRAPHY

- Grant, Blanche C., editor. Kit Carson's story of his life as dictated...about 1856-57. Taos, N. M. [editor]. 138 pp. \$1.25.
 Bond, Christiana. Memories of Gen. Robert E. Lee. Balto.: Norman, Remington. 52 pp. 75c.
 Hirst, Francis W. Early life and letters of John Morley. 2 vols. N. Y.: Macmillan. 353, 294 pp. \$10.50 set.
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Historical Articles in Current Periodicals

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GENERAL AND MISCELLANEOUS

- Time, Technology, and the Creative Spirit in Political Science. Charles A. Beard (*American Political Science Review*, February).
 The Expansion of International Jurisdiction. Pitman B. Potter (*Political Science Quarterly*, December).
 Social Theory and the *Principium Unitatis*. William Orton (*American Political Science Review*, February).
 Why Social Studies? Edgar Dawson (*Educational Review*, March).
 What a Layman Wants in the Teaching of History and Literature. William B. Smith (*Educational Review*, March).
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 A Roman Town in Africa. Rolf Johannesen (*History Quarterly*, January). Mainly concerning Thubursicu.
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 The Blight of Pestilence on Early Modern Civilization. Lynn Thorndike (*American Historical Review*, April).
 The Influence of the Anglo-French Treaty of Commerce of 1860 on the Development of the Iron Industry in France. Arthur L. Dunham (*Quarterly Journal of Economics*, February).
 Progress and Problems in Middle Europe. G. E. R. Gedye (*Contemporary Review*, February).

- Byzantine Studies in Russia, Past and Present. A. A. Vasiliev (*American Historical Review*, April).
 The Rise of the Danish Peasantry (continued). P. Maniche (*Sociological Review*, January).
 The Tragedy of Emperor Maximilian of Mexico. Alfred Tyrnauer (*Current History*, March).

THE BRITISH EMPIRE

- The Political Ideas of Contemporary Tory Democracy. Lewis Rockow (*American Political Science Review*, February).
 Captain William Hawkeridge and his Voyage in Search of a North-West Passage in 1625. Miller Christy (*Mariner's Mirror*, January).
 International Calvinism through Locke and the Revolution of 1688. Herbert D. Foster (*American Historical Review*, April).
 King Arthur and Politics. Gordon H. Gerould (*Speculum*, January).
 The First and Second Anglo-French Conflicts in the Indian Ocean. Adm. G. A. Ballard (*Mariner's Mirror*, January).
 Sir Henry Penrice and Sir Thomas Salusbury. W. Senior (*Mariner's Mirror*, January).
 The Lord High Admiral and the Administration of the Navy. E. S. de Beer (*Mariner's Mirror*, January).
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 Was Captain Kidd a Pirate? W. R. M. Lamb (*National Review*, February).
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 The Position of Scottish Women in the Eighteenth Century. Eunice G. Murray (*Scots Magazine*, February).
 Glasgow's Ancient Craft Gilds, XVI. John C. Black (*Scots Magazine*, February).
 Ireland and the English Parliament: an Imperial Phase of the Puritan Revolution. Robert L. Schuyler (*Political Science Quarterly*, December).
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 The Tercentenary of Barbados. James A. Williamson (*Blackwood's*, February).
 The Occupation of Egypt. Josiah C. Wedgwood (*Contemporary Review*, February).
 India since the Reforms. Lt.-Col. Aubrey O'Brien (*Dublin Review*, January).

GREAT WAR AND ITS PROBLEMS

- British Revelations on the Outbreak of the World War. Bernadotte E. Schmitt (*Current History*, March).
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 The British Army in Italy. Sir A. Conan Doyle (*Fortnightly Review*, February).
 Post-War Austria and its Problems. N. F. Grant (*Dublin Review*, January).

UNITED STATES AND DEPENDENCIES

- The Meeting of the American Historical Association at Rochester. J. F. Jameson (*American Historical Review*, April).
 Should American History be Hero-Worship? (*Current History*, March). I. A Plea for Unvarnished Truth, by Walter H. Blumenthal; II. Baseless Slanders on Great Men, by Albert B. Hart.
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 Daniel Boone. Floyd C. Shoemaker (*Missouri Historical Review*, January).
 William Henry Harrison in the War of 1812. Beverly W. Bond, Jr. (*Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, March).
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 Vessels wrecked from the beginning of its navigation to 1925.
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 Author was callboy at Ford's Theatre the night of the tragedy.
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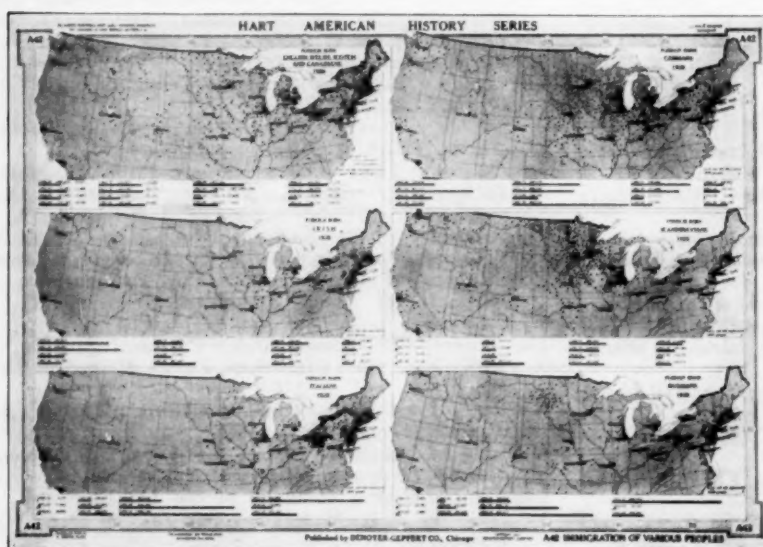
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